

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 25, 1882.

The Week.

THE decision of the full bench of the Supreme Court of the District in Guiteau's case leaves him only two chances of escape—an application to the Supreme Court of the United States for a writ of habeas corpus, on the ground that the court had not jurisdiction to try the prisoner, or a lunacy inquest. The latter may be dismissed as out of the question, because no judge would listen to any but the most overwhelming evidence of insanity where the issue has been recently involved in a murder trial, and has been decided against the prisoner; and there is no more reason for thinking Guiteau insane now than there was at the time of the verdict. It is possible that habeas-corpus proceedings may be attempted, but even if the Supreme Court should undertake to review the decision of the trial court by such means, it is impossible to imagine any way in which the verdict could be upset. The "jurisdictional point" in Guiteau's case—the question whether the District courts have jurisdiction over a murderer whose victim has died in New Jersey—is one on which there are conflicting decisions, and, in accordance with the usual rules governing such cases, the Supreme Court of the United States could hardly do otherwise than take the decisions of the Supreme Court of the District as finally establishing the law for the District. It would no more inquire whether these were right or wrong than it would whether the decision of such a point by the Court of Appeals of this State was correct, and for this very reason the Judges may very well refuse to entertain habeas-corpus proceedings at all, as involving a mere waste of time. In all human probability, therefore, Guiteau will be hanged on June 30.

If the steady growth of a bouffe atmosphere about a custom or institution be a sign of its approaching extinction, we are certainly near the end of the spoils system. Kauffman, one of the Cameron nominees for an Internal Revenue Collectorship in Pennsylvania, *vice* Wiley, dismissed without cause, or rather in the teeth of much cause for retaining him, has been confirmed by the Senate, the beautiful reform platform of the Pennsylvania Republicans to the contrary in any wise notwithstanding. The debate over the matter in the Senate was very remarkable. Senator Mitchell opposed the confirmation by eulogizing Mr. Wiley, and by reading the beautiful platform and "public opinion" hostile to the change from Pennsylvania newspapers. To this Mr. Cameron replied by abusing Mr. Wiley, and reading "voices in the air" from other Pennsylvania newspapers favorable to the change. The beautiful platform, however, remained to be disposed of, but Mr. Cameron was not troubled by it. He met it by pleading that it had no *ex-post-facto* operation, or, in other words, did not apply to nominations made before it was adopted. In

other words, the platform is like the temperance pledge of the inebriate, which was to take effect as soon as he had disposed of a keg of whiskey which he happened to have in the house. We believe, however, that this is the first time that a man in high office has produced a reform which is to begin after certain abuses already on hand have been executed.

Mr. George William Curtis has availed himself of the opportunity afforded by a letter to Senator Mitchell of Pennsylvania, apropos of the Independent revolt in that State, to utter some solid chunks of good sense about the practice, so much indulged in by reformers in and out of politics of late years, of denouncing bosses and the use of patronage for political ends without specifying the particular mode in which these abuses are to be put an end to. He shows that the common language of reform platforms on this subject now simply sounds to the country "as vapid declamation intended to conceal personal disappointment and spite"; and, he might have added, to get the control of the Machine for a new set of "workers." As soon as the reformers begin to ask for the adoption of competition as the sole mode of entering the service, and promotion as the chief mode of reaching its higher grades, so as to leave no power to "influence," the voters will begin to believe in the sincerity of Independents, and reform movements will sweep everything before them. The languid interest now felt in them is due to the strong suspicion that they originate in a desire for a "new deal."

Mr. Conkling has been again "foully slandered"—this time by the Kingston *Freeman*. This wicked sheet says that he became a candidate for reelection "out of his own head," and not by the advice of his friends; that his friends urged him from time to time to withdraw, but that he would not; and that he was a party to a "corrupt bargain" looking to the election of himself and of "another person." It will be a surprise to most persons that Mr. Conkling should stoop to notice such slanders as these. Indeed, it seems to be a surprise to himself that he should be doing it, for in an interview on the subject he recalls the fact that his "habit has been never to reply to slanders, however foul." His friends have, it seems, persuaded him that this habit has "encouraged calumny." On their advice, he has resolved to depart from his habit in this case, and reply to the libel. In his emphatic way he now declares that "each of these charges is without truth and positively against truth." The fact, he says, is that he went to Albany at the urgent request of his friends and supporters; that he never asked any man to vote for him; that though he frequently requested a withdrawal of his name, his friends positively refused to consent to it; and that he was not a party to a bargain of any kind, corrupt or pure, on the subject. This interview has been followed by one with Mr. Sharpe, who was supposed to be one of Mr. Conkling's closest friends at the time he went to Albany,

as to his responsibility for the article in the *Freeman*. He says he knew nothing of it until he saw it in print, but that he would "like to know the names" of the friends who advised Mr. Conkling to go to Albany, and then goes further and declares that the great man "never consulted" them at all, either at Washington or in this State. He also says, somewhat truculently, that the editor of the *Freeman* "has a good deal of personal knowledge" of the facts in the case, and "knows how to take care of himself." It almost looks as if Mr. Conkling's early habit of total silence worked better than replying to charges, and as if in departing from it he had been again misled by his friends. Everybody would like to know who they are. They may be good and pure men, but they are sadly deficient in judgment. Would it not be better for Mr. Conkling to pay no further attention to their suggestions on any subject?

Mr. Crapo's bill to extend the charters of national banks passed the House by a vote of 125 to 67, receiving nearly a two-thirds majority on the final test. The political division of the vote shows that 103 Republicans and 22 Democrats voted for the bill, and that 3 Republicans, 8 Greenbackers, and 56 Democrats voted against it. Approximately ninety-seven per cent. of the Republican and twenty-five per cent. of the Democratic vote was cast for the bill—three per cent. of the former and seventy-five per cent. of the latter being cast against it. Votes taken on amendments proposed at various stages of the debate show that one-third of the House, divided politically in about the same way, were not only opposed to continuing the national-banking system, but were in favor of issuing new greenbacks to take the place of the existing bank notes. The Democrats have thus signalized themselves anew as the bedlamites of finance; for although the Greenbackers claim peculiar distinction in this regard, and although in the debate they attacked the Democrats fiercely as being only hypocrites and pretenders in the cause of fiat money, they furnished only one vote in eight to the common muster-roll. It is now some fourteen years since the Democratic party first attempted to make an attractive issue for themselves out of some plan for producing financial chaos. In every single instance where they have succeeded to their hearts' desire in making this issue pronounced and definite, so that the people could divide upon it, they have been ignominiously beaten at the polls.

The most important amendment to the National Bank Bill was that which provides that all suits brought by or against national banks shall be tried in the same courts in which suits brought by or against other banks are tried—*i. e.*, in the State courts, if the parties to the suit are citizens of the same State. This amendment is of no value and is of doubtful constitutionality. In so far as it assumes to deprive the United

States courts of jurisdiction in this class of cases it is clearly unconstitutional and void. The Constitution, art. 3, sec. 2, says: "The judicial power [of the United States] shall extend to all cases in law and equity arising under . . . the laws of the United States." The National Banking Act is certainly a law of the United States. Consequently the rights of parties to sue in the courts of the United States in any and all cases arising under that law cannot be impaired. If the object of the amendment was merely to give the State courts concurrent jurisdiction in such cases, it was hardly worth the trouble of passing it. The concession seems to have been made by the friends of the bill in order to secure the support of a few State-rights fanatics who would otherwise have voted against the whole measure. Although this was the only important amendment adopted, several very bad ones were voted down: that of Bland, which provided for substituting greenbacks for bank notes, being defeated by the decisive vote of 71 to 138. The most significant vote of all was on the amendment of Mr. Springer to limit the extended charters to ten years, on the ground that as the national debt would be paid off within ten years the present banking system would necessarily come to an end. This amendment also was defeated, and the vote shows that the House does not consider the extinction of the public debt as equivalent to an extinction of the national-banking system. This is as it should be.

The House Foreign Affairs Committee has disposed of the Shipherd contempt case in a singular way. On Wednesday Mr. Shipherd appeared before it, armed with a bagful of books and papers, and was asked whether he still declined to produce *all* the documentary evidence he had bearing on the attempts to enforce the claim of the Peruvian Company against Peru. On his saying positively that he did refuse, the Committee went into secret session, and after ten minutes opened their doors and announced that Shipherd would be discharged until further notification. Thereupon Shipherd sat down and wrote a long letter to the Chairman, saying that he had a great deal of evidence to produce, which he insisted upon producing as a matter of right, including "an important letter from the President of the United States," and correspondence with representatives of Peru and the State Department. He declared that as the Committee had permitted other witnesses to discredit him, he was entitled to an opportunity to be heard to clear himself. The affair has been compared with the Hallet Kilbourn case, but there is really a wide difference between the two. When Kilbourn was called upon to testify with regard to the District of Columbia "real-estate pool," what the Committee wanted was to draw from him all the facts within his knowledge connected with that concern. Kilbourn refused, and was in consequence sent to jail, where he languished for some time, but finally got out on habeas corpus, and established his right to refuse to testify by a decision of the Supreme Court to the effect that the Constitution gives Congress no jurisdiction over "pools" of any kind, real or per-

sonal, and that consequently the House cannot compel witnesses to testify with regard to them. But Shipherd does not refuse to testify: he longs to testify. He declares that he has a letter of General Grant about the Peruvian Company; a letter from President Garfield's private secretary, by means of which the "missing documents" in the South American correspondence can be traced into the possession of Mr. Blaine; letters of Senator Blair concerning his communications with Mr. Blaine as to the Peruvian Company; besides other correspondence bearing on the use made of the State Department to advance the objects of that corporation. The offer of testimony with regard to the missing documents is particularly important, as it was in great measure to discover what had become of them that the Committee was instructed. Shipherd not only longs to testify with regard to all these matters, but insists that he has a constitutional and common-law right to do so.

But the Committee is not to be forced into taking testimony which will enable them to report to the House what they were directed to find out, so easily as this. When they found that Shipherd refused to testify on some things but really wanted to testify on others a few days ago, they immediately voted to discharge him as a witness; and now that he has offered to produce letters showing what actually became of the "missing documents," they have passed a resolution that he be allowed to submit any documents he may have for examination by the Committee, and that "if such papers be found pertinent," and "if there should be occasion therefor," or, in other words, if the Committee please, it will recall him. The case, therefore, presents the interesting and novel question whether a committee can lawfully prevent a witness from testifying before it when he says that he has evidence to give directly bearing on the matter which it has been directed to investigate.

Shipherd has published a card, couched in very impudent and abusive language, in which he offers five dollars reward, and "no awkward questions asked," for the return of "one James G. Blaine," whom he describes as "missing," and, when last seen, "making across the country south-southwest at the approximate rate of sixteen and three-quarter miles per hour." He declares that Mr. Blaine has carried off the Foreign Affairs Committee with him, and he wants them both back, in order to continue his "narrative." He says, however, that he has received "requests" for the tale, with the accompanying documents, "from nearly every State in the Union," and he is now considering the expediency of continuing it "in some other place than the now deserted Committee-room." There is no reason why he should not comply with these requests, and "thunder it out," as Guiteau would say, to the American people. They have a right to know what the tale is, even if the Committee has grown sick of its task.

Among some interesting information of the cost of churches given by the Rev. Joseph Pullman, of Brooklyn, on Sunday, was an estimate that "the cost of a single war vessel would

build 250 churches of a better character than the average church building to-day." The average church is far better adapted to its purpose than our average war vessel. Most of the ships of our alleged navy are either rotting on the stocks, or, if afloat, are useless for purposes of attack or defence. Our 92 vessels—"serviceable," "requiring extensive repairs," and "unserviceable"—would represent, at this rate, 23,000 churches; and it is safe to say that the latter would make about as effectual a stand as the former against the guns of a first-class European navy. The money expended on the 250 churches is made up of voluntary contributions. If they were allowed to fall into decay before they were finished, or if when completed they were unfit to be occupied, the contributions would soon cease. The war vessel is paid for by enforced taxation, and as the people are not consulted on the question of contributing the money, their complaints as to the way in which it is expended are not considered. Mr. Pullman's comparison is more suggestive than perhaps he suspected.

The Massachusetts Supreme Court has rendered a very important decision with regard to property in unpublished plays, which removes from the law of this country the last vestige of the antique notion, dear to dramatic pirates all over the world, that stealing plays by memory is not piracy, but a legitimate branch of business. Judge Devens, overruling the well-known decision of his own court, made more than twenty years ago in the "American Cousin" case, holds that while a spectator at a play is entitled to "all the enjoyment" he can derive from its representation, and may even, if he thinks such an occupation likely to give him any pleasure or to improve his mind, take notes of what he sees, for purposes of criticism, etc., he has no right to commit the play to memory, or take it down in shorthand, and then reproduce it. In other words, the author does not by the representation of his play abandon it to the public, but retains all his rights. This decision makes the law of Massachusetts and New York identical on this point, and makes the security given to dramatic property in the United States greater than that given anywhere else in the world. This, however, is the work of the courts, not of the legislature.

The strike which at one time promised to be among the most formidable and wide-reaching in its influence seems to have failed. The Pacific Mill strikers in Lawrence, Massachusetts, have spent nearly all their money and are unable to collect any more. The owners have filled their mills—partly with new operatives and partly with the old hands, of whom only 150 are now unemployed—and are doing, in some branches, more work than ever before. In this case the costly instrument for enforcing an advance or preventing a reduction of wages has not served its purpose. In other cases—particularly in this city—the workmen have secured what they demanded. The latest to quit work are the boiler-makers, and there is a probability of concessions on the part of employers. The attitude of the iron and steel workers of Pennsylvania has for

some time been a constant menace, and is likely to take a more positive shape. The manufacturers have rejected the proposed new scale, although the operatives modified it in some important respects. If the latter make good their threats, 30,000 men will go out of employment on the first of June. They are said to have a thorough organization and a large fund; but these very possessions will make the strike, whatever its final result, a very expensive proceeding. The varying fortunes of this extreme measure may induce the workmen to ask themselves whether it is not at best a makeshift, and whether the troubles which reappear from time to time may not be averted by an inquiry into their causes. The iron and steel manufacturers say that "they have few orders and low prices, and can better afford to shut down than go ahead." The Textile Fabric Manufacturers' Association have decided to reduce the production of certain grades of goods because they "are glutting their shelves." The effect is to put a great number of workers on half time. Here are two cases in which over-production, in the absence of foreign outlets for manufactures, has compelled payment of wages unsatisfactory to the workmen, or exclusion from employment in whole or in part. It is argued in the latter case, indeed, that popular extravagance has induced a demand for higher-grade goods, but none the less was the production of the lower grade excessive. Artificial stimulation is the beginning and end of the high-tariff system. Protectionists say that it benefits labor, but laborers may well ask whether the alleged gains are not offset by the losses, in the form of reduced pay, idleness, strikes, and lock-outs, caused by the excesses to which the system leads.

Early in the week, \$4,675,000 specie was shipped, making the total shipment since January 1 \$25,491,297. The market for foreign exchange then fell below the gold-exporting point, and so ruled until near the close of the week, when the settlement of another large lot of borrowed bills forced another heavy shipment. The large Treasury disbursements and the favorable condition of the domestic exchanges modified the influence of the heavy gold exports on the bank figures for the week; and the surplus reserve of the New York banks was reduced only \$2,020,725—to \$6,152,225. The rates for money were in no way affected by the reduction in the bank reserve, the rate for demand loans not having ruled above three per cent. At the Stock Exchange, hesitation and dulness have characterized the week. In the early part the inclination was to higher and in the latter part to lower prices. The weather is closely watched by the stock speculators, and it was admittedly favorable until the latter part of the week, when a cold wave in the Northwestern States created some anxiety. General trade continues rather dull, and depression is the feature of the iron trade and the branches of business dependent upon it. The Pacific Bank of Boston, which failed some time ago and then resumed on a reorganization, again suspended business during the week. In the foreign markets, money has been in abundant supply at low rates, and the

demand for American securities has increased without becoming sufficiently large to have much influence on the foreign exchanges.

The first speech of Mr. Trevelyan, the new Secretary for Ireland, is not encouraging. He has apparently taken on the half-paternal, half-autocratic tone toward the Irish by which Mr. Forster did himself so much injury, and which, however grateful it may be to the Tories and Conservative-Liberals, must simply help to increase the difficulties of the Government in Ireland; for, after all, it is in vain that the English Tories think well of the Irish policy of the Ministry if it does not pacify Ireland. It may be very well to show the Irish that Parnell does not govern the island, but besides this they have to be shown who does govern it. This last is, as experience has proved, by far the harder part of the job. The Irish judges, except the Lord Chancellor, have protested against the proposed suspension of trial by jury, and for the reasons which we foreshadowed two days ago. They rightly feel that it would do serious injury to their own influence and authority. The effect of the whole scheme, in fact, on Irish feeling seems to be very unfortunate, and it is already stamped with failure.

Mr. Gladstone is slowly pushing the Repression Bill through. Many of the Liberals object to the provisions relating to the suppression of newspapers and the prohibition of public meetings, and the Irish judges are notoriously unwilling to become the instruments of executing the law without the aid of juries. As yet there is not from any quarter the slightest suggestion of a new and more efficient mode of procuring evidence of agrarian crime. The difficulty of procuring such evidence has had far more to do with the failure of the ordinary law to repress crime than the refusal of juries to convict. In fact, the failures of justice through want of witnesses are to the failures through the refusal of juries to convict in the proportion of about twenty-five to one. So that abolishing trial by jury, without making any better provision for getting testimony, is very like making a house tight by carefully weatherstripping the windows while leaving large holes in the roof. The unwisdom, too, of putting the whole island under a system of arbitrary rule because there happens to be a savage and, as the Government admits, justifiable quarrel between the landlords and tenants about land, is well illustrated by the following admission from the London *Economist*, one of the calmest and most impartial of English journals:

"The law itself in these parts of Ireland is in a condition almost without a precedent in Europe. Upon all ordinary subjects it is carried out as well as it is anywhere. If a man murders a wayfarer for robbery, or steals his neighbor's spoons, or interferes with him in any way, he is punished exactly as he would be in London or Paris. There is in the worst districts nearly perfect security both for life and property if either are unconnected with land. If, however, the property is land, or the life that of a landlord, agent, or minister of the law, the insecurity is very great—greater than in the wildest States of Western America."

The concessions made by Prince Bismarck to the Catholic Church by the repeal of the

principal features of the celebrated Falk laws, have so far entirely failed to produce the desired results. They have not elicited from the Vatican any valuable expression of satisfaction, in the way of an assurance that now the Church considers itself at peace with the state and will act accordingly. To a firm will supported by strength the Church has sometimes bowed, waiting for better times. But a yielding, conciliatory policy on the part of its opponents has always reanimated and stiffened in the Church the spirit of domination. The policy of "overwhelming generosity" with regard to the Church question, which has been recently announced by members of the German Government, will in all probability only result in this, that the Vatican will always be ready to take what it can get, at the same time quietly expressing its expectation of more. Bismarck has, therefore, not made any satisfactory progress in that direction. He has equally failed in securing, as he hoped, sufficient parliamentary support for his pet measure, the tobacco monopoly, to carry it through the Reichstag. The committee to which the subject was recently referred has voted and reported against the Government proposition by a majority of 24 to 4, and the fate of the measure in the Reichstag itself appears therefore no longer doubtful. But Bismarck is known as one of those statesmen who never acknowledge a defeat, and although it is given out that he will not dissolve the Reichstag on account of the rejection of his principal measure, he will bring this bill before it again and again, and have it argued over and over in Parliament, and in election campaigns, until it is finally put through by main force of perseverance, if he lives long enough to tire out the opposition. But he is now sixty-seven years old, and his health is none of the firmest; and after him the unknown.

The French, who have been long troubled about the failure of their population to grow in as great a ratio as that of their neighbor nations, are, since the census of 1880, more troubled than ever. The summary of it has just appeared, and the marriage and birth returns are rather startling. At the rate at which the French population grew in 1860, it would have doubled in 145 years. At the rate at which it is now growing, it would double in 433 years, or, in other words, is virtually stationary. There was a slight increase of marriages during the two or three years following the war, owing to postponements during the war, but ever since 1873 there has been a marked decline both in marriages and in births, illegitimate as well as legitimate. It is with the Germans that the French writers now anxiously and for obvious reasons compare the national productiveness, and there is but little comfort to be got in that way, for the German births are 3.91 per hundred of population, while the French are only 2.47. If it were not for the German emigration, in fact, the French outlook would be very dark. The lowness of the death-rate at first looks consolatory, but then examination shows this to be due to the smallness of the number of children, who in all countries make the largest contribution to the bills of mortality.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

THE House of Representatives further considered the bill to extend the charters of the national banks on Wednesday and Thursday. On the latter day a flood of amendments to the bill were offered, among which was one offered by Mr. Hammond, of Georgia, giving State courts jurisdiction of suits to which national banks are parties, which was adopted without a division. On Friday a vote was finally reached and the bill passed by 123 to 67. Three Republicans voted against the bill, and twenty Democrats for it. The bill as passed provides that any national-banking association may at any time within the two years next previous to the date of the expiration of its corporate existence under the present law, and with the approval of the Comptroller of the Currency, extend its period of succession, by amending its articles of association, for a term of not more than twenty years, and shall have succession for such extended period, unless sooner dissolved by the act of shareholders owning two-thirds of its stock, or unless its franchise becomes forfeited by some violation of the law. Section six provides that the circulating notes of any association so extending the period of its succession, which shall have been issued to it prior to such extension, shall be redeemed at the Treasury of the United States, in accordance with section three of the Act of June 20, 1874. These notes are to be replaced by new circulating notes, "bearing such devices, to be approved by the Comptroller of the Currency, as shall make them readily distinguishable from the circulating notes heretofore issued. Section eight provides that national banks having a capital of \$150,000 or less shall not be required to keep or deposit with the Treasurer of the United States United States bonds in excess of \$10,000 as security for their circulating notes, and such of those banks as now have on deposit bonds in excess of that amount are authorized to reduce their circulation by the deposit of lawful money as provided by law.

The House passed a bill, on Thursday, providing that any person, originally a citizen of the United States, who has been naturalized as a subject of Great Britain, may publicly declare his renunciation of such naturalization and resume his character and privileges as a citizen of the United States by signing an instrument to that effect.

On Monday the President sent to the House of Representatives the report from the Secretary of State, and its accompanying documents, in response to the House resolution concerning the imprisonment of American citizens in Ireland. The correspondence is mainly upon the negotiations after April 3, at which time nearly all the Americans had been released, and is voluminous. In answer to Lord Granville's quotation from Mr. Seward, the Secretary of State says, in brief, that the President could not expect that the exercise of sovereignty assumed by the United States when their security was imperilled should not be assumed by other powers similarly situated; but that when the system of legal administration in Ireland worked injustice to American citizens, it became the President's duty to inquire into it, and that the President is unable to see that even the exceptional condition of Ireland "furnishes a sufficient reason why an American citizen should remain incarcerated without accusation, without chance of trial, without opportunity of release." In regard to a release conditional upon the suspect's leaving the country, Mr. Frelinghuysen says: "The President has little doubt that her Majesty's Government do not intend to insist in practice upon the extreme doctrine that an American citizen, against whom there is no charge, shall, without trial, remain in prison or leave the United Kingdom. But he believes by fairly considering each case as it arises conclusions will be reached satisfactory to both Governments.

The House Committee on Civil-Service Reform has asked the House for permission to sit during the recess for the purpose of formulating a general bill on civil-service reform.

On Tuesday the Senate, by a vote of thirty-eight to twelve, passed the bill for reestablishing the Court of Commissioners of Alabama Claims for the distribution of the unappropriated money of the Geneva Award. Every amendment was rejected, the Senate approving the House Bill without changing it in any particular.

The President has approved the Fortifications Appropriation Bill, the Agricultural Department Appropriation Bill, and the Act providing for the removal of the remains of the late General Kilpatrick to the State of New Jersey.

Shipherd appeared before the House Committee on Foreign Affairs, on Wednesday, and was asked by the Chairman whether he was prepared to furnish, and would furnish, "all papers and other evidence in your possession tending to show what you did or attempted to do to enforce the claim of the Peruvian Company, or induce the United States to enforce this claim against Peru." In reply to this, Shipherd positively refused to produce the papers and evidence called for. He sent a letter to the Committee later in the day, in which he asked to be allowed to reply to Mr. Blaine's statements before the Committee, and said that he was prepared "to supply in effect, though I cannot literally," all the evidence called for by the Committee. He further stated that this evidence included an "important letter from the President of the United States, and recently discovered correspondence with official and unofficial representatives of Peru and with the Department of State," and that this documentary evidence, with much more which he did not need to specify, would enable him to absolutely disprove every imputation upon his veracity. The Committee adopted a resolution on Friday that Shipherd be permitted to submit to the Committee, for their inspection, any original papers which were pertinent to the inquiry, without reserve as to any part of their contents, and that if the papers were found to be pertinent, the witness would be further examined touching them. Shipherd has since, however, issued a card offering for sale the documents which he had prepared for the Committee. He says he does not propose to "bother with the Committee any longer."

On Wednesday Mr. Frelinghuysen received a despatch announcing that Mr. Trescot had sailed for home. No news has yet been received in regard to Mr. Trescot's interviews with Montero, or the rejection of the Chilian project for a truce. It would seem that Mr. Trescot will be the bearer of his own despatches concerning the results of his special mission.

The General Term of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia handed down its decision in the Guiteau case on Monday. The verdict and sentence of the lower court are sustained. The decision of the Court is an elaborate one, and considers very fully the points raised by Guiteau's counsel as to the application of the general statute of the United States in regard to the crime of murder to the District of Columbia, and as to the jurisdiction of a court of the District over a criminal whose murderous act was followed by death elsewhere. Guiteau received the news calmly, without the least appearance of nervousness. It is said that Mr. Reed, Guiteau's counsel, will now apply for a commission *de lunatico inquirendo*.

Among the subscriptions received by Treasurer Gilfillan, for the Garfield Memorial Hospital, to be erected in Washington, were \$3,352 49, contributed in London and Paris, and forwarded by Mr. Morton, American Minister to France.

The Grand Jury at Washington returned new presentments against Brady, the Dorseys, Rerdell, Turner, Miner, Peck, and Vaile on Saturday, charging them with conspiracy to

defraud the United States in connection with the awards of Star-route contracts. The indictments which are now being tried will be dismissed and give place to the new presentments, and it is thought by the prosecuting officers that they close up the several loopholes which were left open in the old indictments.

Mr. Thomas M. Marshall, who was nominated on the Cameron ticket for Congressman-at-large from Pennsylvania, has declined the nomination.

At a conference of Independent Republicans, on Wednesday, Mr. Charles S. Wolfe was elected a Senatorial delegate to the State Convention to be held on May 24. In his address Mr. Wolfe referred to the recent conference of Independents and Regulars, and flatly contradicted the charge that he had made a bargain with Cameron. In concluding, he said that he deprecated the action which the Independents would be obliged to take, and that he deprecated Democratic ascendancy in the State, but that all hope of peace was at an end, "and nothing is left but war—war against the spoils system and bossism."

Mr. Alexander H. Stephens has written a letter declining a nomination for Governor from the Independent party of Georgia. He says he will accept a nomination from the regular Democratic party and no other.

The steamer *Alaska*, of the Guion Line, arrived in New York on Sunday, having made the run from Queenstown to Sandy Hook in seven days, four hours, and ten minutes, which is the shortest passage on record.

The steamer *Rio Grande*, of the Mallory Line, which was on a voyage from Galveston to New York, was discovered to be on fire at about five o'clock on Tuesday, the 16th, when she was about ninety miles to the southeast of Cape Henlopen. The passengers were transferred to a bark which fortunately happened to be near at hand, and the captain of the *Rio Grande* then ran the steamer ashore and put out the fire, and succeeded in saving a large part of the cargo.

The New York *Herald* says editorially that Mr. Bennett will take care of the widow and orphans of Lieutenant De Long, "and not of them alone, but of every widow and of every orphan of the men who sailed with the *Jeanette* and have perished."

The 107th Anniversary of the Declaration of Independence by the people of Mecklenburg County, North Carolina, was celebrated at Charlotte on Saturday. Senator Vance made a speech of welcome, Senator Ransom read the Declaration, and Senator Bayard was the orator of the day.

The prosecution rested its case in the Malley trial on Tuesday. The State has shown that the prisoners were probably with Jennie Cramer up to about seven hours before she was found dead on the beach, and that they had opportunity to give her poison, but has failed utterly to prove that she was killed by arsenic administered by either James or Walter Malley or Blanche Douglass.

The Attorney-General of Massachusetts has forbidden the further publication of Walt Whitman's "Leaves of Grass," by Osgood & Co., unless some indelicate passages are expurgated. Mr. Whitman has refused to consent to this, and Osgood & Co. have given up the work.

FOREIGN.

The debate on the Repression Bill was continued in the House of Commons on Thursday. Mr. Trevelyan, Chief Secretary for Ireland, who was reelected Member of Parliament for Harwich without opposition, inspecting on the bill, declared that it would facilitate the summoning of witnesses. The Government, he said, would be slow to use their power with regard to public meetings, and where meetings were held they would regard less the utterances of the speakers than the effect which they were intended to produce.

Mr. Dillon, speaking against the bill, maintained that the failures to convict were not the result of intimidation, but of popular sympathy. The bill, he declared, would have no other effect than to provoke secret organization. The debate on the second reading of the bill came to a close on Friday, and a division was taken showing a majority of 338 in favor of the measure. The most noteworthy incident in the discussion on this day was the emphatic denial by Mr. Gladstone that the bill was the outcome of English resentment. Mr. Gladstone said that the main basis of the bill, and the motives which prompted the Government in carrying it forward with all possible energy, had reference not so much to those persons of rank and station who had become the victims of the fury of criminals, as to the misery which had been carried far and wide among the people of Ireland by the infliction of outrages in every cruel and extreme form.

On Monday Mr. Gladstone moved the second reading of the Arrears of Rent Bill. He said it was impossible to compel people to borrow, and therefore the money supplied by the Government must be a gift. He stated that there were 585,000 tenants in Ireland paying under £30 rent (Griffith's valuation); out of these 200,000 were excluded from the benefits of the Land Act by being in arrears. This, he said, must be remedied. He admitted that the proposal was extraordinary, but so, he said, was the state of Ireland. Mr. Slater-Booth, Conservative, described the Government's plan as communistic and demoralizing. He said it was an evil precedent, and most objectionable in view of the Scotch and English farmers, who suffered as much as the Irish farmers. Mr. Forster said it would be for the interest of the landlords to reduce the number of tenants, and that if the poor tenants got a fair start, they would become fewer and better off. He strongly favored the grant taking the form of a gift. Mr. Trevelyan said the bill would give the tenants the great advantage of a fresh start, with a feeling of independence which probably neither they nor their predecessors had ever before known. After some further discussion, notwithstanding Mr. Gladstone's efforts to bring about a vote, the debate was adjourned.

The Arrears-of-Rent Bill was passed to a second reading in the House of Commons on Tuesday by a vote of 269 to 157, the amendment of Mr. Slater-Booth, that it is inexpedient to charge the consolidated fund with any payment for arrears except in the form of a loan, having been previously rejected.

Evictions of tenants for non-payment of rent, which were stopped for the moment, have been resumed in many parts of Ireland. The measures of repression proposed in Parliament are said to be creating a revulsion of feeling throughout the country. Murmurs of discontent and dissatisfaction are heard at the course pursued by Mr. Parnell. The Irish judges have protested against the proposed abolition of trial by jury in Ireland.

Diligent search has as yet been unavailing to discover the murderers of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke, although numerous arrests have been made.

The *St. James's Gazette* says that it learns that Under-Secretary Burke was followed for protection by a constable on the day of his assassination, but the constable, just before the murder, was lured away by a false report that a woman was being murdered.

Mr. Lowell opened the "Garfield Home for Working Girls" in Brixton Road on Wednesday. Mr. Lowell in his address said he had been drawn to the opening of the Home first by the name of Garfield, and second by his own real interest in the object of the institution.

At the Reform Club in London on Thursday a poll was taken on Lord Hartington's proposal that the election of members should be conducted by a committee instead of being

decided by a ballot of the whole club, and it was lost by a vote of 361 to 382. It is stated that several distinguished members intend to resign on account of the result of the ballot.

The London Mansion-House Jewish Relief fund now amounts to £72,000. The Fund Committee despatch six hundred refugees to America weekly, at a cost of £5,500.

The Vienna *Presse's* correspondent at Brody says that the condition of the Jews there is more terrible than previous telegrams had led people to suppose. It is complained that the Liverpool Relief Committee transport strong young men only to America, while men and women with large families are left at Brody. Starvation is increasing, and sickness is widespread. The emigration from Russia is still going on, and the Jews are selling the whole of their property at any cost and hurrying to the frontier. Seventy of the principal business firms of Moscow have addressed a memorial to the Minister of Finance setting forth the disastrous consequences of expelling the Jews from Moscow. According to trustworthy data, the material damage done by the anti-Jewish movement, including houses, bread-stuffs, and other property destroyed, and money taken away by the emigration of Jews, amounts to £22,000,000, all lost to Russia. The Jewish question has created a deadlock in the Russian Cabinet. The Minister of Finance, who sees the great loss which the exchequer must suffer from the exodus of the Jews, threatens to resign if the measures of General Ignatieff to accelerate the emigration of the Jews are adopted. On the other hand, rumors are circulated that General Ignatieff intends to resign the position of Minister of the Interior.

At a council of the Russian Imperial family recently it was decided, on account of the receipt of alarming information touching the projects of the Nihilists, to defer the coronation of the Czar for a year. It is said that the information of the projects of the Nihilists which caused the postponement was received from the foreign police. The German Embassy at St. Petersburg is said to have been warned that the German Crown Prince will incur great danger if he attends the coronation of the Czar, as there is a "deep, undiscoverable conspiracy against the Czar and his guests."

On Wednesday the London *Times* published a telegram from the President of the Egyptian Chamber of Notables, saying that the differences between the Khedive and the Ministers had completely disappeared. Other despatches stated that the Ministry would remain in office for a few days, in order to allow the negotiations between Turkey and the powers to proceed. English and French fleets have appeared at Alexandria. A despatch from Cairo on Monday said that the Ministry were making strenuous efforts to obtain the support of the Notables in inaugurating a policy of resistance to England and France. It is said that the English and French Governments are mistaken if they think Arabi Bey will be frightened into yielding by the presence of iron-clads at Alexandria. Arabi Bey's adherents say that he can count upon the Army, and that he means to fight. On Monday it was announced that the Turkish Minister of Foreign Affairs had demanded of the British and French Ambassadors, in the name of the Sultan, the recall of the squadrons from Alexandria, on the ground that order is now restored. The Ambassadors have communicated the request to their respective Governments, and are now awaiting instructions.

An interview has taken place between Arabi Bey and the French Consul in Egypt in connection with the efforts which are being made to induce Arabi Bey and the rebellious Army officers to leave Egypt. The interview was without result. Arabi Bey maintained that the country was with him in favor of determined resistance. It is also announced that the negotiations between the Consuls and the

Ministry have failed, and the latter refuse further negotiations unless the English and French fleets are withdrawn. A council of war has decided in favor of active military preparations. In fact, the latest despatches represent the situation in Egypt as having become alarming again, and it is generally thought that the presence of Turkish troops will be necessary to prevent an outbreak.

The French Chamber of Deputies on Monday resolved, notwithstanding the opposition of M. Say, Minister of Finance, to consider the proposal substituting a duty on alcohol for the duty on wines and beer, and M. Say thereupon, at the end of the sitting, tendered his resignation as Minister of Finance; but on Tuesday the Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 302 to 36, passed a resolution of confidence in M. Say, who will accordingly remain in office.

The action brought by the municipality of Marseilles against the ex-Empress Eugénie to recover possession of the château presented to the late Emperor by the city has been decided in favor of the Empress.

A Berlin despatch says that the Committee of the Reichstag, to which the Tobacco Monopoly Bill was referred, has rejected all the clauses to number 31 of the bill. Only four members voted in their favor. The House has adjourned until June 6.

The Crivoscians, being destitute of all means of carrying on their revolt, have crossed the Montenegrin frontier and surrendered to the Montenegrin troops.

Debate was begun in the Spanish Chamber of Deputies on Wednesday on the Government measure for instituting oral and public trials. The Attorney-General has resigned. He will introduce a counter scheme in favor of the establishment of the jury system. Several important members of the majority are said to approve this plan, and the Democrats have resolved to support it. The Prime Minister, Señor Sagasta, has declared that the country is not yet ready for it, and will make the Government scheme a Cabinet question. On Friday, however, the Minister of Justice announced that the Government would introduce at the next session a bill establishing trial by jury and a new penal code framed on very liberal principles. It was thought that this statement would appease the dissentient section of the Ministerial majority, but on Saturday the amendment proposing the institution of trial by jury was offered, and although Señor Sagasta spoke against the amendment, and said the adoption would be regarded as a vote of censure, yet twenty-eight influential members of the Ministerial party voted for the amendment, and forty members abstained from voting. The amendment was, however, rejected by a vote of 181 to 55.

The Canadian Parliament was prorogued on Wednesday with the customary ceremonies. The Governor-General, in his address, referred to the abolition of the duties on metals and other raw materials, and said: "It is satisfactory to know that a buoyant state revenue will permit these reductions—amounting to about \$1,250,000—to be made without inconvenience." Referring to the rapid and successful development of manufacturing, agricultural, and other industries, the Governor-General said he thought progress in these directions would be still greater were it not that capitalists "hesitate to embark their means in undertakings which would be injured, if not destroyed, by a change in the trade and fiscal policy adopted by you in 1879," and that therefore, in order to give the people without further delay an opportunity of expressing their deliberate opinion on this policy, and at the same time to bring into operation the measure for readjustment of representation in the House of Commons, he announced that it was his intention to cause the present Parliament to be dissolved at an early day.

TUESDAY, May 23, 1882.

MR. LOWELL AND THE IRISH.

WHETHER President Arthur has determined to recall Mr. Lowell, and the *Herald* is preparing the way for an announcement of the fact, or the *Herald* has itself determined that Mr. Lowell ought to be recalled, and is trying to bring the President over to the same way of thinking, we do not know. Whatever be the reason, the *Herald* is publishing a series of articles urging the recall, on the single ground that Mr. Lowell, however fit for the place he may be in other respects, has the capital defect of not enjoying the confidence of the American Irish. There is apparently no specific charge of neglect of duty made against him. The list of Irish-American citizens whom he was some time ago accused of having allowed to languish in British dungeons, is somehow not forthcoming. In other words, the inmates of dungeons who claimed American citizenship have mostly turned out to be persons who had little or no title to American citizenship, and claimed it, not from love of liberty—for some of them refused to be released on condition that they would quit Ireland—but in the hope of making trouble between Great Britain and the United States, or, as they would themselves doubtless express it, for "divilmint."

Nor is it now alleged—though some such absurdity was broached in the beginning—that Mr. Lowell is not American enough for the Irish voters. This was probably too wild a charge for even O'Donovan Rossa to stick to. If it were true that Mr. Lowell, at the age of sixty, had forgotten how an American should feel, and had forgotten the sources of American greatness, and forgotten what American honor and fame required in the intercourse of the country with foreign nations, it would give strong support to the theory that no American could safely be trusted with the foreign policy of the Government, and that the President should select his diplomatic agents, from the Secretary of State down, from among the most recent comers at Castle Garden. So that the sole objection to Mr. Lowell is that a portion of the foreign-born population of the country do not like him, and are annoyed by the popularity which his high character, his scholarly attainments, his fame as an American author, and his attractive manners have created for him in English society.

Even if it were conceded, however, that a Minister, in other respects unobjectionable, ought to be recalled because the Irish or Germans, or any particular section of the population are dissatisfied with him, we should still have to inquire *why* they were dissatisfied with him. In this, as in all other matters, it is the majority of the American people only whose wishes have to be obeyed without explanation. It is the majority only which is sovereign. It is to the will of the majority well ascertained only that the President owes implicit heed. When a minority, and especially a small minority—the Irish number about 2,250,000 all told in a population of 50,000,000—asks to have a thing done for its special gratification, it is bound to explain why it wants it, and is bound to show that

what will satisfy it will do no harm to the rest of the community. In other words, American Ministers should represent the American people, and not a portion of the American people, and if the President orders, or permits, a Minister to represent anything less than the American people, he fails in his duty. The reasonableness of this becomes obvious enough when we consider that all diplomatic representations, or remonstrances, or requirements, have the use of the national force, or, in other words, war, behind them as a possible contingency. But war has to be waged by the whole people. Its burdens, and losses, and sorrows fall on the whole people. If we should get into a war with England about dungeons, it is not the Irish who would carry it on and suffer for it. It is every man, woman, and child in the United States. So that it is the American people which Mr. Lowell is bound to represent in London, and not the Irish portion of the American people. It is American traditions, ideas, and policy which he is bound to uphold, in his intercourse with the British Government, and not Irish traditions, ideas, or policy.

As a matter of fact, no American Minister in London has ever satisfied the Irish. They were as hostile to Mr. Charles Francis Adams as they are to Mr. Lowell, and were as eager for his recall, and yet Mr. Adams was probably the most useful Minister we have ever had at that post. The inference, therefore, that they cannot be satisfied is not unfair.

This would be true even if the Irish ideas or policy which Mr. Lowell is called on to support abroad related solely to American affairs. It is doubly true when they do not relate to American affairs at all. The internal condition of Ireland about which Mr. Lowell is called upon to work himself up in London has, diplomatically considered, no more interest for the United States than the internal condition of Turkey. The United States has even less right to interfere about it than about the internal condition of Turkey. The fact that large numbers of persons who are interested in it have come to this country, and that their excitement continues in their new homes, creates no new duty for the United States Government. The one duty of the United States toward immigrants is to provide them with security for person and property, and all the opportunities for the pursuit of happiness on American soil which are enjoyed by the natives. This has been their duty from the beginning; it is their duty still. As part of this duty they owe it to foreign-born no less than to native citizens to maintain toward foreign powers the position of a great civilized nation—of a land of settled government, controlled by the international ideas and usages of Christendom; and not to allow their diplomacy or their army or their fleets to be converted into the missionaries of any collection of half-crazed revolutionists who seek refuge on their shores.

No one has a deeper sense of the wrongs inflicted on Irishmen by English misgovernment than we have. No one is more heartily in favor of anything which will not only give them material prosperity, but satisfy that remarkable national pride of theirs which has managed to spring up on such very stony

ground, and has survived so many storms and frosts. But there is no one who knows anything of their agitation who does not see that it is seriously impeded by their moral isolation from the rest of the civilized world, and by the absence of leaders who command the respect of other nations, and by the savage absurdity and violence of many of their methods. Nothing has done so much for them of late years, nothing has contributed so much to create respect for their cause in England, as the fact that a large body of them have become members of a successful, prosperous, and rational community on this side of the Atlantic. It has given them a splendid chance of showing that under favorable conditions they are not wanting in political capacity, and that they can work a settled government as well as anybody. The worst thing that President Arthur or anybody else could do for them now—the most damaging to their political reputation—would be to commit this Government to barbarous or crazy courses in real or apparent deference to their wishes. Their bitter enemies in London have for weeks been repeating their wild and hysterical denunciations of Mr. Lowell as proofs that they were irreclaimable savages, whom nothing but buckshot could tame into civility. They have within a week been compared to the Ashantees, on whom it might be well to try the soldier who brought King Coffee Calcalli to reason. And now comes the *Herald*, and proposes that the President shall present them in a still more degrading aspect before the world, by giving up to be kicked, and cuffed, and driven out of office by them, as unworthy to represent his own country, one of the foremost Americans of his day, who is loved, and honored, and admired by every civilized people. Was there ever anything done for the Irish looking more like ingenious hostility and contempt?

BLUNDERING IN THE SOUTH.

THE drift of things in most of the Southern States is evidently in the direction of new political formations. The number of people who are getting tired of a stupid, hidebound, bigoted party policy, under a set of narrow-minded, selfish drill-masters as party leaders, is constantly increasing; and this restlessness shows itself in all sorts of "independent" movements, of more or less strength, for all sorts of objects, but all giving the same evidence of the waning power of party discipline and of the decreasing respect and affection of the masses for old political associations. A large majority of these movements aim more or less directly at the obliteration of the color line in politics, and are therefore calculated to bring forth beneficial results by dividing the white as well as the colored vote, by bringing the latter under the influence of a leadership identified with the interests of the respective communities, and by thus gradually withdrawing from political contests in the South the most hurtful cause of apprehension and unreasoning passion. The "Bourbon" element—that is, the adherents of the old system of party rule—of course exhibits great alarm at these symptoms of disintegration, and will try for some time yet, by

violent appeals and dreadful predictions, to maintain their ancient influence and power. But these dreadful predictions will soon prove their own groundlessness, and the artificial excitement created by them cannot last long. The process disintegrating the old organizations will proceed, and that very rapidly, as the new pursuits and wants of Southern society naturally create new political aspirations and stimulate new discontents.

The irresistible strength of this tendency shows itself now and then in an almost comical way. When, for instance, Mr. Chalmers, of Mississippi, after having been ousted from a seat in Congress to which he had not the least shadow of right, says that he will have nothing more to do with the regular Democratic organization, and proclaims himself an "Independent," on the ground that the Democrats in Congress did not work hard enough or filibuster long enough to keep him in a seat obtained by the most shameless election frauds, the exhibition is decidedly grotesque. Still, it proves that almost anything is now considered a sufficient pretext for swinging off from the regular organization.

The most stubborn struggle against party disintegration seems to be made in South Carolina, where the Democratic leaders derive great comfort and encouragement from the failure of the Government to bring those connected with the notorious election frauds in that State to justice. The *Charleston News* congratulates the Democratic party of that State upon its "good condition." It says: "There was much laxity and lukewarmness until the course of the political trials in Charleston showed the people the depth and breadth of the Stalwart conspiracy to Africanize the State." The Stalwart conspiracy here referred to consisted in certain prosecutions instituted under the Federal election laws for the purpose of bringing to condign punishment those who stuffed ballot-boxes or in other ways defrauded voters of their legal rights, thus transforming a minority into a majority. And "Africanizing the State" means securing to the colored voters in South Carolina the free exercise of the suffrage guaranteed to them by the Constitution and the laws. The Democratic organ, then, virtually congratulates itself upon the prospect that ballot-box stuffing and other ways of falsifying the elections may go on in South Carolina without danger of being interrupted by successful legal prosecutions, and that, consequently, the Democratic party there may expect another lease of power.

We have sincerely sympathized with all legitimate efforts made in the South to secure to those States honest and intelligent government, and when their people in the old carpetbag times, to accomplish that end, resorted to very objectionable methods, which, as law-abiding citizens, we had to condemn, we were not unwilling to take the unusual provocation into account as a mitigating circumstance. But the pressing necessities of those days are behind us, and in the meanwhile there has been time and opportunity enough to bring the ignorant vote of the South under influences of a perfectly legitimate and legal kind, that can prevent it from becoming a mere support to profligacy and speculation, and make it as useful, or at least as harmless, as the ignorant

vote is elsewhere. If our brethren in South Carolina, who put themselves forward as the guardians of the interests of that State, have not yet discovered any better means to protect those interests than cheating at the polls and committing wholesale frauds in making up election returns, they have shown a lamentable lack of ability as well as moral sense. We can scarcely conceive of a greater folly than to believe, as they seem to do, that they can keep up in the long run a "government by election fraud." A government by force is intelligible, also a government by election when the majority is reasonably certain that the results of the elections represent its will. But a system of government by election fraud, not only systematic but open and confessed, as the frauds in South Carolina have been, where everybody knows that the elections do not in any wise represent the will of the majority—such a system must necessarily break down under its own weight; for, even if the disfranchised majority could find no means to enforce its rights, one after another of the supporters of the spurious government would, in the long run, either become disgusted with those vicious practices or, through dissatisfaction for other reasons with the acts of those in power, select the disreputable origin of the Government as the point of attack. It must, therefore, inevitably fall. And in the meantime the arts employed to keep it up, those ingenious methods of fraud and falsification which in South Carolina have been developed to so high a degree of perfection, will only serve utterly to corrupt and demoralize all classes that take any part in the politics of that State. It is a nursery of political crime teeming with the seed of future disaster. The advocates of the system do not know how soon its present victims will use it to plague its present beneficiaries. South Carolina is evidently in the hands of very shortsighted and dangerous friends.

MOORE, OF TENNESSEE, ON THE CIVIL SERVICE.

THERE are not many men in the world who have obtained so much fame by a single *not* as Flanagan, of Texas, who, at the Chicago Republican Convention in 1880, asked, bluntly, "what they were there for but to get the offices"—his simple and straightforward mind being greatly puzzled by all the talk he heard against the treatment of offices as "spoils." It bewildered him nearly as much as the orders of the Prince of Montenegro to his troops in the late war, not to bring him any more Turkish heads or ears. To Flanagan, politics without clerkships or post-offices to be got by winning elections was what war without heads was to the Montenegrins—if, indeed, he was able to get the idea into his brain at all. His innocent question excited much mirth, because it revealed the fact that there were politicians in the party who had not even got so far as to take up reform of the civil service as a useful and slightly amusing bit of humbug. He could not even see the joke of it, and confessed it publicly.

That Flanagan did not stand alone, however, but represented a considerable class, was revealed the other day in a very entertaining

conversation with Mr. Moore, a Congressman from Tennessee, reported by the Washington correspondent of the *Herald*. Mr. Moore has got a widow named Mrs. Wilcox turned out of the Post-office Department. She was the granddaughter of Andrew Jackson's adopted daughter, Mrs. Donelson, and the widow of a Confederate general, and was appointed by General Grant in 1869. The correspondent of the *Herald* called on him for an explanation of the matter, and he gave it, and it was nearly as simple and diverting as Flanagan's question. He declared that he wanted the Widow Wilcox dismissed because she was a Democrat; because she had been in office long enough, "drawing Republican pay," and because he and Judge Houk wanted the place for the widow of a Union soldier, and because he was opposed to "sentimental appointments." His theory of the civil service, or his "general ideas on the subject," as he called them, he said would be found in a "crude bill" which he introduced into the House on January 23, of which the following is the preamble:

"Whereas, The Government of the United States is a government necessarily of parties, and whereas the interests of the successful party demand the distribution of the public offices among those who indorse the principles of said party; and whereas, under the existing peculiarities of our human nature as well as the genius of our institutions, no party can prosper under a system which recognizes the right of one set of claimants to hold office continuously; therefore, be it enacted," etc.

With these "general ideas," it is no wonder that Mr. Moore "has no patience with civil-service reform, so called," and that "if he has any politics it is practical politics." Thus far Mr. Moore had got along swimmingly; he had met his questioner as a man with no nonsense about him, with a regular system embodied in a bill.

But here the correspondent became troublesome, and, in fact, began to prepare poor Mr. Moore for destruction. He cunningly asked him first whether he applied this system to his private business, and Mr. Moore had to acknowledge that he did not, because it would be bad for his business, and because the Government officer, besides doing clerical work, has to support his party as his principal duty. The "general idea" here was rather cloudy, but still up to this point Mr. Moore had borne himself like a philosopher and statesman. But at this point the correspondent asked him how the doctrine applied to the Memphis Post-office, in which Mr. Moore was seeking the removal of a Republican widow to make room for his own brother-in-law. This was a cruel question. Here the philosopher collapsed, and the philosophy all went to pieces. He confessed that he wanted the widow removed for "business reasons and general inefficiency"—the comparative unimportance of which is a prominent feature in his "general idea"—and next because, if his brother-in-law were put in her place, it would help to stem the tide of repudiation in Tennessee. But he protested that it was not because he had married his wife's sister that he chose him for this great work, but because his appointment would "antagonize the party" less than that of anybody else. The greatest thought in the preamble of the Moore bill was, in fact, that "the existing peculiarities of our human

nature" call for rotation in office, as indeed they do for an equal division of all the good things of this life. They call also for the retention of Union widows in office until your wife's brother wants the place, but no longer.

THE EGYPTIAN CRISIS.

ALEXANDRIA, May 3.

THE present is a moment of extraordinary calm and general expectancy. The calm is extraordinary because no person ever meets another in the street, on the railway train, in places of public resort, or at festive gatherings, without expressing a wonder that something decisive does not take place, and an assurance that the social stability from day to day is simply resting on no basis at all. For a few days the plot against Arabi Pasha seemed as if it augured the beginning of a new crisis which would not be resolved without finally clearing the air. But the latest news is that in spite of the courts-martial and judicial inquiries which are going on with Oriental ostentation and tedious prolongation, the Minister of War—that is, Arabi himself—is now bent on hushing the whole matter up. There is no doubt that for some days his life was really imperilled, and it was unsafe for him to appear abroad. The Circassian element among the officers was apparently the main source of the conspiracy. This fact is instructive as to the true origin of the present revolution, which keeps silently progressing. Old Egyptians will remember how it was the fixed policy of Mohammed Ali and his first successors to compose the Army of different and counteracting classes such as Turks, Circassians, and Arabs. The progressive influence of the policy worked out with such success by Ismail Pasha in the direction of separating Egypt from the rest of the Ottoman Empire has resulted in the vastly preponderant weight of the Arab element in the Army. This is so much the case that during the last few months even the Coptic element has been discountenanced, and I have been told on the best authority that among the hundreds of officers who have been promoted by the present Government there is not to be found a single Copt.

This exclusive policy, though it no doubt seems favorable to a joint Mussulman and national interest, has in fact resulted in the creation of a frightful Frankenstein-monster, before which the Government itself is beginning to quail. The Army is the Egyptian people, minus the Copts, in their most organized, luxurious, self-seeking, indolent, and probably worthless aspect. The condition of a standing army in a civilized country such as Germany, France, or England, is notoriously unfavorable to the personal morality and integrity of the soldier. But in these countries the idlest regiments at home cannot exempt themselves from the control, direct and indirect, of a public opinion far more enlightened than the average notions prevailing among themselves. The moral and constitutional, not to say the religious and social, forces which are in such abundant activity in Western countries, reduce the soldiery, even when consisting of exaggerated numbers, to an insignificant item in public affairs. The reverse is the case in such a country as Egypt, where the only organizing force is that of the Mohammedan religion, in the profession of which the soldiers share to a man. When, on a recent occasion, some of the late Khedive's family, on the plea of health, attempted to land at Alexandria, the Minister of War, Arabi Pasha, published a manifesto, in the course of which he declared that "the soldiers, as well as the Government, would not tolerate any attempt to reintroduce the excluded ruler or his household." This allusion to the views of the soldiers and their political determination in a Government

proclamation is an almost unprecedented event in political history. In fact, the Prætorian Guards of Imperial Rome went through the form of choosing an Emperor as civil governor before they employed him as their voice in directing the destinies of the state. But Arabi Pasha affects no concealment of the fact that the Egyptian Army at the present moment is the first political factor, the concurrence of which must be secured in each new undertaking.

Obviously the danger to public security comes from the probable competition of the officers among themselves. According to all accounts, and even the reports of his best friends, Arabi Pasha is by no means a born leader of men, such as Mohammed Ali and Napoleon, let alone Washington or Cromwell. He seems to be personally well rather than ill-intentioned, with a little smattering and varnish of Western constitutional doctrines, drawn from English tourists or enthusiasts who have been gratifying their own self-conceit by interviewing one whom they have essayed to force into the position of a real man of note. It is probably to be wished that things should get rapidly worse in order for them to become really better. Public order, though not yet compromised, rests on a weaker foundation than in any other country in which so many civilized people live; commerce of an enterprising and progressive character is at a standstill; the able and honest administration of the public departments is being daily assaulted by the wholly uncalled-for commissions directed against the European functionaries; and, as I shall have occasion to show in an early paper, the Report of the Controllers, just issued for the past year, shows that the provisions laboriously made for paying off the debt are already being impaired by the increased military expenditure.

To take a still larger view of the situation, it may be said that the present condition of Egypt, like that of Russia, shows the extreme difficulty of obtaining any security for public order and liberty where the whole population of the country is at once homogeneous and uneducated. The growth of society in the originally feudalized countries of Western Europe has been determined partly by the progress at unequal rates of advance of a variety of different classes in the population, and partly by the mutual relationships which these classes have at all times had with one another. Commerce, political interests, religious discrepancies or combinations, social needs, economical contribution or coöperation, have in these countries welded the population together by the strongest of ties, while at the same time maintaining an equilibrium of innumerable independent forces. The result is that while widespread combination for the ends of disorder or purely selfish interest is simply impossible, there is no limit to the field for combination for beneficent and worthy political objects. In Egypt, on the other hand, at the present time, the only sort of combination which is possible must be for evil, and cannot be for good. If the nation, in its present stage of infantine education, not to say of recent emancipation from slavery, combines at all, it must combine for purposes which it ill understands. The result must be that its organ will be the man or men who can best flatter its ignorant or fanatical susceptibility, and turn it to his or their own private account. It is the old story of an unenlightened democracy giving place to tyranny; the only new chapter in the story being that the Egyptian people have not even the individual and personal elements to entitle them to the name of a truly democratized society. Thus, whereas in other countries which have passed through similar stages the tyranny has been

shortlived, and finally given place to constitutional monarchy or Republicanism, the only conceivable outlook in Egypt, apart from help from without, is anarchy, or the sort of spurious semblance of order covering the most flagitious disorder which is familiar to all those who have investigated the conditions of a Turkish province left to itself.

There are, however, certain fixed institutions and facts in Egypt which render it wholly improbable that when a sufficient crisis presents itself the Powers of Europe will any longer forbear decisively to intervene. The public debt, the Turkish tribute pledged for the Turkish debt, the Suez Canal, and the Mixed International Tribunals, the guarantees of commercial intercourse and of Government solvency, are distinct interests which cannot be misapprehended by English and French diplomatists, or even by those of Italy, Germany, and Austria, which countries have never failed to come to the front when the occasion demanded. A.

Correspondence.

PROF. ADAMS'S 'MANUAL OF HISTORICAL LITERATURE.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your very generous notice of my 'Manual of Historical Literature,' you have fallen into one or two errors which I cannot resist the temptation to point out. Bernhardt's 'Russia' is mentioned as an omission from the volume, whereas an extended notice of the work is given at the proper place at p. 377, and reference is made to the same in the index. You also charge me with saying that vol. iii of Lindner's 'Geschichte des deutschen Reiches' appeared in 1875, whereas the second volume was issued in 1880; but what I did say (p. 251) was that vol. i. appeared in 1875, a statement which accords with the fact. Nor is it quite accurate to say, as you do, that "nothing is given for Portugal," inasmuch as a section of chap. xii. is given to "Histories of Spain and Portugal," and in that section are to be found somewhat detailed accounts of Ballaert's 'Wars of the Succession in Portugal and Spain,' Dunham's 'History of Spain and Portugal,' Landmann's 'Portugal,' and Crawford's 'Portugal, Old and New.' Schäfer's 'Portugal,' which you note as absent, is given on p. 191 as one of the Heeren & Ukert series. My blunder concerning Röpell & Caro's 'Geschichte Polens,' though arising from a confounding of the work with Röpell's 'Polen um die Mitte des 18. Jahrhunderts,' is sufficiently mortifying; but my wounded sensibilities are somewhat soothed by the fact that my reviewer did not get into print without two or three errors of his own. C. K. ADAMS.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, May 6, 1882.

Notes.

GINN & HEATH, Boston, will shortly publish an edition of the Anglo-Saxon epic 'Beowulf,' edited from Hayne's fourth edition by Professor J. A. Harrison, of Washington and Lee University; this to be followed by a Glossary, in preparation by Professors Harrison and Robert Sharp, of the University of Louisiana.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert have in press a new volume of sermons by Henry Ward Beecher.

Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce 'A Mere Caprice,' a novel of Parisian life, by Mary Healy, daughter of the eminent portrait-painter. Miss Amy Fay's 'Music Study in Germany,' originally published by this house, has

been translated into German (Berlin: R. Oppenheimer).

The Century Co. have secured for first publication in their magazine a 'History of Life in the Thirteen Colonies,' by Mr. Edward Eggleston, which may, the author says, form part of an ultimate 'History of Life in the United States.' The scheme of the prospectus is very novel and attractive, and the illustrations which are promised will be a substantial addition to the text.

Mr. Franklin B. Hough, Chief of the Forestry Division of the Department of Agriculture, proposes, with sufficient encouragement, to issue on July 1 the first number of a monthly *American Journal of Forestry*, of which Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, will be the publishers. The same publishers will have ready next month Hough's 'Elements of Forestry,' a large illustrated 12mo.

The *Athenæum* states that Mr. Darwin has left an autobiography behind him, together with a sketch of his father about as elaborate as that of his grandfather, though it may very likely be found less entertaining. In the autumn, the same journal says, will appear the earlier volumes of Lord Lytton's *Life of his father*.

A national one-dollar subscription in honor of the poet Longfellow has been opened at Cambridge, Mass., under the auspices of a Longfellow Memorial Association, of which Minister Lowell is President, and Mr. Arthur Gilman Secretary. The objects of the fund are to purchase the vacant ground opposite the old house and skirted by the Charles River, to convert it into a public park, and to adorn it with a suitable monument; and to preserve the house itself if it should ever pass out of the hands of Mr. Longfellow's family. Subscriptions should be sent to Mr. John Bartlett, Treasurer, P. O. Box 1590, Boston.

The Society of the Army of the Cumberland has undertaken to erect in Washington a statue or monument in memory of President Garfield, and bespeaks a national contribution, in sums of one dollar, on the approaching Decoration Day. The Treasurer is Adj.-Gen. H. C. Corbin, Washington, D.C.

On occasion of his sixtieth birthday, June 24, prox. (not February 23, by the way, as Vapereau gives it), it is proposed to honor the eminent Italian archaeologist, G. B. de' Rossi, with a gold medal. His discoveries in the Catacombs and his published Roman Christian inscriptions commend his labors for grateful acknowledgment to a vast and not merely scholarly public. It is hoped that American subscriptions will not be wanting to this international testimonial. To each subscriber will be sent an album containing the names of the whole body of subscribers, and he will have the privilege of buying a bronze copy of the medal for three lire (or sixty cents). Contributions should be sent at once to Dr. Wm. H. Klapp, 2132 Pine Street, Philadelphia.

Macmillan & Co. send us a new edition of Masson's 'Compendious Dictionary of the French Language,' originally published in 1874. We remark no change in the contents except the insertion of a comparative table of weights and measures. The paper, however, is lighter, and the print less good, to meet the lowered price of the work. The peculiar feature of this dictionary is (for the sake of compactness) the omission from the French vocabulary of words spelled the same in French as in English, which is sometimes carried too far, when accents are involved. The admirable feature is the chronological tables of French literature—a most convenient summary of names and dates. In our frequent use of this handy and in the main excellent work, we have observed an occasional carelessness in the gender of nouns.

From Thalheimer's *Manuals and Histories*, Van

Antwerp, Bragg & Co. have made up an 'Eclectic Historical Atlas' (8vo), which will be found a very useful companion for ordinary reading. Maps of the Thirty Years' War, of the battlefields between Paris and Berlin, of the War of 1812, of the Rebellion, etc., are interspersed with those of the several European States, ancient and modern, the Persian Empire, etc.

In the illustrated Rolfe edition of Shakspeare's plays, 'Timon of Athens' has just been published by the Messrs. Harper.

Guide-books multiply as the travelling season draws nigh. 'Osgood's Pocket Guide to Europe' (Boston) has double the pages of Mr. Knox's, noticed last week, and, unlike it, is provided with interleaved maps, a short vocabulary of familiar words and expressions, etc., while the arrangement is rather by countries than by routes, or, in other words, rather for those who linger than for those who hurry through. It may be described and praised as an abbreviated Baedeker. The print is excellent.

'Sketches from the *Harvard Lampoon*' is a quarto volume of 122 pages, gathering together designs, large and small, from the back volumes of that lively periodical, from which one or two books have been already made. A more rigid selection would have left out much that is crude in the drawing and flat in the humor; but, on the whole, the result both represents the average quality of the *Lampoon* and is creditable to college wit and draughtsmanship. The themes are not simply local. Pure fun better than the illustration on p. 74, 'Influence of Gymnastics on Sculpture'—where a vandal, supported on the back of another, is chipping off the face of a Caryatid—is seldom met with in comic journalism.

J. W. Bouton has received the 'Catalogue Illustrée' of the present Salon, a sufficient proportion of whose 4,936 pieces are sketchily represented on 287 pages. The array is curious and perforce interesting. Literature has no such graphic method of recording the ideals and standards of a given period; Mr. Stevens's proposed catalogue by facsimile titles-pages would of course give no idea of the character of the books of the year. It can hardly be said that, for what relates to design and choice of subject, this sample of the Salon—and presumably of the best of the May exhibition—is flattering to the present stage of French art.

On the same day with the commencement of the meeting of the American Association at Montreal—August 23 next—will begin the fifty-second annual meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science. The Association meets this year at Southampton, and the President-elect is Dr. C. W. Siemens. The several sections of the Association, with their respective Presidents, are the following: Mathematical and Physical Science, Lord Rayleigh; Chemical Science, Professor Liveing; Geology, R. Etheridge; Biology, Professor Gamgee; Geography, Sir R. Temple; Economic Science and Statistics, G. Selater-Booth; Mechanical Science, John Fowler. The meetings of the Association will extend over a week.

Acta Comparationis Litterarum Universalium, the curious polyglot semi-monthly published at Klausenburg, Transylvania, of which mention was made in No. 826 of the *Nation*, is now in its seventh volume. We notice in its long and very cosmopolitan list of contributors Prof. R. Anderson, of Madison, Wis., and Miss A. Woodward, of Philadelphia. Its contents are as varied as ever, the last two numbers at hand offering the choice of articles and poems in German, French, Italian, Hungarian, Rumanian, Armenian, Icelandic, in the Transylvanian Gypsy dialect, and even in Japanese.

The name of the author of the Russian work

reviewed by us last week should have read 'Lopukhin.'

—The magazines for June, of course, bring tributes in prose and verse to Longfellow. In *Harper's*, Mr. Curtis remarks upon his having lived in the very heart of the New England Transcendental movement and been "as untouched by it as Charles Lamb by the wars of Napoleon"; and upon that other sign at once of independence and of even merit, that "he was not intimidated by his own fame," but went on producing and being admired up to the day of his death. An admirable likeness of the poet, engraved by Thomas Johnson, accompanies this article, and is in striking contrast with the feeble performance on steel which makes a frontispiece for the *Atlantic*. The most curious of several interesting illustrated papers in this number of *Harper's* is Mr. Sylvester Baxter's "The Father of the Pueblos." Readers of the daily press have had their attention caught by the recent ceremonies in Boston harbor, by which, under municipal auspices, as we may say, a delegation of Zuni Indians, from New Mexico, replenished their sacred vessels with sea water. Their leader, a white man, Mr. Frank H. Cushing, had got himself adopted into the tribe in order to pursue his aboriginal studies, and the most extraordinary of all the scenes described by Mr. Baxter is, considering its surroundings, Cushing's room in the pueblo at Zuni:

"A writing-table, a case of book-shelves, with the books necessary to his studies, and the volumes of valuable notes that recorded his investigations—a stool, a student-lamp, and a hammock—completed the inventory of the civilized furnishings. But there was the wonderful addition of a telephone, . . . constructed out of a couple of old tin cans and several hundred yards of twine, to prove to the Zunis the truth of what he had told them about the triumphs of American invention. The telephone was connected with the house of one of the caciques on the opposite side of the pueblo, about a quarter of a mile away."

Another sight is that of women, children, and dogs ascending and descending the ladders—the first carrying water-jars on their heads and not touching the ladders with their hands; still another, the nightly fires on the housetops. Mr. Baxter was fortunate in witnessing the great dance, some of whose features are almost identical with those of the Mandan exercises described by Catlin. The mimicry of one of the impersonators recalls Darwin's observations on this faculty in savages, apropos of the Fuegians. "We shouted out to him [the Echo God] in English, and, although ignorant of the language, he proved himself a remarkably clever imitator. But when one of us whistled, that was beyond his mimicry, and it seemed to disconcert him not a little." In the Editor's Easy Chair, praise is deservedly bestowed on Mr. Abbey's charming Herick design in this number ("Delight in Disorder"), and the expected announcement is made that it and its fellows in the same series will make a holiday volume.

—In Mr. Eugene L. Didier's *Harper* article on "The Social Athens of America," meaning Baltimore, it is mentioned that the visit to New York of Mr. and Mrs. Gilmor, expressly to see the Garcias in Italian opera in 1836, was thought worthy of notice in the newspapers. This incident would furnish a piquant foot-note to Mr. Grant White's book on 'Opera in New York,' of which we have the concluding instalment in the *June Century*. The "critics, at home as well as abroad, whose acquaintance with New York was made 'since the war,'" get a parting reminder of their ignorance of the long and high training of our musical public; and numerous judgments, both sound and questionable, are hazarded of singers yet with us and on the stage, or who come within that fifteen-year limit be-

yond which the average New Yorker cannot express his mind without presumption. The main article in this number is Mr. C. Kegan Paul's account of Cardinal Newman, which is unexceptionable in point of attitude, and is based on ample knowledge at first hand. For those to whom the personality of Dr. Newman means nothing, as is the case with most American readers not churchmen, the interest in the Tractarian movement and in "Tract XC." particularly can hardly be more lively than in Chartism, for example. The peculiar theological, social, and political effervescence, in the Lesser and the Greater Britain, in the period from 1825 to 1845 or thereabouts, seems like the expiring demonstration of a world on which modern science was just beginning to dawn with benumbing effect, and in which the comparative sparseness of population, and the obstacles to transportation and the spread of intelligence, created a condition favorable to surprises, panics, and great "movements" of faith, innovation, and renovation. Mr. Kegan Paul writes as a Liberal of the Liberals, but with strong feelings of attachment to Cardinal Newman. Incidentally he has a cutting allusion to Mr. James Anthony Froude's contribution to the 'Lives of the Saints,' which was avowedly a work of the imagination. "Mr. Froude," he says, "has not alluded to it in his recent account of the Tractarian movement at Oxford; but the matter is not without interest, and may perhaps throw some light on his whole method of writing history and biography." Cole's masterly engraving of the Cardinal's likeness is a study in itself, but would be still more highly instructive if compared with the etching by Rajon, which it follows by translating black line into white. The specimens, by the way, of wood-cutting for the last *Century* prizes given in this number are most promising. We conclude our notice with a reference to the short paper, by Mr. Robert W. Welch, on "Marble Mining in Carrara," which is a model of exhaustive brevity.

—The *Atlantic* for June opens with a poem on Longfellow, by Dr. Holmes, of a somewhat conventional character. The most forcible lines in it are those in which the expression of regret at the cessation of his "Dorian flute-notes" is emphasized by contrast with the

"—harsher strain,
"The Maenad's scream, the stark barbarian's cry,"
which have succeeded them. What Messrs. Swinburne and Walt Whitman, and the other "whirling dervishes of song," to use Mr. Longfellow's own designation of them, will think of this allusion, which certainly deserves to be called to their immediate attention, we hardly care to think. Mr. Hardy adds five chapters to his remarkable "Two on a Tower," and complicates the situation of his characters by involving Lady Constantine and Swithin St. Cleve in astronomical relations of which no jealous husband would approve. A rising tide of generosity indicates the possibility of a tenderer emotion as the cause of it; but when a married woman makes a present of an equatorial—to say nothing of the tower on which it stands—to a young scientist whom she barely knows, it looks as if society ought to interfere. Mr. Harrison, in his instalment of "Studies in the South," gives an amusing account of the exalted position to which the new commercial and industrial activity in that part of the world has elevated the humble "drummer." He describes the Southern drummer—and so much, we believe, is true of him everywhere—as invariably "kind and obliging"; but he has more reason for displaying these amiable traits in the new South than elsewhere, owing, no doubt, to the fact that his activity and ubiquity are "hailed with pride" by the community

as a gratifying sign of returning prosperity. He is "commonly treated better than anybody else on the road." Mr. Harrison mentions, as a rather startling illustration of the position held by this favored class, that at Montgomery, Ala., the hotel clerk, on learning that he was not a drummer, immediately added fifty per cent. to his bill. Most of these drummers are, it seems, young and "somewhat peculiar." Their peculiarity consists in the fact that the consideration and respect with which they are everywhere treated leads them to regard themselves as the principals in the business which they represent, and to look upon the houses which employ them as "mere subordinates or agents, employed by the drummers to put up and forward the goods sold on the road." They discuss, with their customary good humor and frankness, "the various methods by which they could so conduct business as to bring the principal profits to their own pockets," speaking of the trade as belonging to themselves, talking of the business which they "control," and resenting any improper treatment by threatening to "carry the trade over to another house." They usually have the best room, and best meals, and when several of them meet at a hotel they sometimes partake of little suppers together. To one of these Mr. Harrison was invited by a somewhat drunken drummer, who, to encourage him, added, "An' we're just as glad to see you 's if you were sober." The article contains a very satisfactory report as to the rapid development of manufacturing industry at the South. As we read the long list of articles now produced in Southern mills and factories, and reflect, too, that they are made by white labor, we feel how entirely new the whole system of life in the Southern States really is, and how completely vanished is the old South of a generation ago, with its quiet, sleepy life, its lavish aristocratic hospitality, its degradation and squalor, its provincial romance and sham sentiment, and its fixed social castes, its St. Clairs, Legrees, Uncle Toms, Dandy Jims, and all the other old familiar types. According to Mr. Harrison, the condition and character of the Southern operatives are better than those of the corresponding class at the North.

—Mr. Philip Robinson contributes a paper on "The Poets' Birds," in which he complains that the whole tribe of English poets are grossly unfamiliar with the habits of many of the birds with whom they make most free in their verses, and that they are ignorant of the very existence of a great variety of species and genera of which they might make excellent poetical use. Out of three thousand known to science, poetry takes cognizance of a bare hundred; of these only two-thirds are in common demand and use; the tropical species are entirely ignored, and "in fact Asia, Africa, and America might not exist for all the advantage their bird-wealth has been to British poets, while Europe, except where its species are British species also, is similarly neglected." Mr. Robinson makes these statements on the strength of an examination of the works of no less than eighty poets, and he shows in detail what unfair treatment these eighty have given birds. They attribute to them all sorts of traits which they do not possess, and frequently cover up their ignorance by epithets which are rather abusive than descriptive. Some of the charges are vague; but it is safe to say that the British poet has been fond for many a long year—certainly down to the time of Tennyson, whom Mr. Robinson excepts from his indictment—of pretending to know a good deal more about nature, animate and inanimate, than he ever really did. Besides the articles we have mentioned, this number of the *Atlantic*, which is the best that we

have seen for at least five months, has some posthumous verses on Decoration Day by Mr. Longfellow, a clever notice of Daudet by Mr. H. James, jr., a tribute to Mr. Darwin by John Fiske, and another to Mr. Longfellow by Mr. O. B. Frothingham. An article on "The Rapid Progress of Communism," by Mr. Edward Atkinson, embodies and elaborates a rather ingenious fancy, that the people who are doing most for the general diffusion of wealth and happiness and comfort—i. e., the great capitalists of modern times—are the true Communists. Hence we ought to speak of Vanderbilt and Jay Gould, not as monopolists, but as forerunners of the economic millennium which Justus Schwab preaches. As a fancy, this is very good, but when Mr. Atkinson goes seriously to work to demonstrate that Vanderbilt is really and truly a Communist, he shows that he confides too much in his readers' sense of humor—a mistake which serious economic writers often make.

— "Kol Kron" contributes an entertaining paper to *Lippincott's* about bicycles and bicycling. He declares that the act of acquiring a mastery of the "wheel" is "merely a mental process, like the act of learning to swim"; and that "whenever a man thinks he can do it, he can do it"; but this, it seems, does not really mean much more than the delusive encouragement sometimes given to beginners in French, that if they can pronounce "monsieur," no other French word will present any difficulty. The time that is required to bring a rider to the point at which he "thinks he can do it" varies, according to "Kol Kron," from a few minutes to several weeks. Mr. Bagg speaks with authority about the "wheel." He gives from twenty-five to fifty miles as his usual day's work, and says that he has done seventy-five "without special effort." With regard to the difficulties presented by the roads in this country, he declares that "there are many sections of the United States where good riding may be had almost continuously for a hundred miles at a stretch, and where, by the aid of a train or boat, much longer tours may be readily laid out." He gives several such trips. Felix L. Oswald has an article on traps, which contains a good deal of the kind of information about animals that boys delight in. Indeed, it may be said generally of *Lippincott's*, that, more than any other magazine not avowedly juvenile in character, it provides material for the young of both sexes.

—A long article in the *Agricultural Review* for May, from the pen of Mr. J. B. Grinnell, of Grinnell, Iowa, on "The Cattle Industries of the United States," shows the writer to be an enthusiast on the subject of stock-raising, and fitted by practical experience to speak authoritatively upon it. "I have waited in vain," he says, "for one with more leisure than is allowed me to supply an urgent want, and now yield with diffidence to the earnest solicitations of those enthusiasts like myself whose valued friendship is less distrusted than their judgment." The prospectus of the article says that "it reads like a romance," and that, perhaps, is the main criticism which we should make upon it. Passing over much fine writing about the advent of European horned cattle, we come to the year 1873, when "a hiatus (sic) in the history of our cattle industry quite overshadowed all past controversies, and is yet a theme of wonder." This "hiatus" was the so-called "Campbell sale," near Utica, N. Y., the record of which, Mr. Grinnell says, "considering the personages assembled and the fabulous prices paid, will ever cause it to be regarded as the great sale of history." Prices, indeed, are fitly characterized as fabulous when eleven cows and one bull bring a total of \$250,800, or an average of more than \$20,000 per head.

After briefly sketching the history, in this country, of various imported breeds—the Short-horn, Devon, Hereford, Holstein, and others—and discussing their relative merits, Mr. Grinnell makes an excursion among the cattle-raisers of the Western plains, and epitomizes the experience of a score or more of them. He deprecates the rude life, both of them and their stock, and recommends school-houses and social advantages to the one, and hay-fields and shelter against the winter's storms for the other. Improvements in this direction will no doubt come in time, but probably the conditions of Iowa farming will never be found practicable in regions where, at present, the stock-raiser requires a range of from ten to seventy acres per head of stock. To buy this land at the Government minimum price of \$1 25 per acre, and then fence it in a treeless region, would make a serious inroad even in the estimated profits of enthusiasts like the writer. The suggestion that the railroads should transport for the cattle-raiser windmills at a nominal rate, and bring in breeding bulls free, would, we fear, have seemed too liberal even to the late Mr. Oakes Ames, whom Mr. Grinnell characterizes in a note as the "noblest of Americans."

—In spite, however, of a tendency to rhetorical flights, inducing a certain obscurity, which is observable in much of our agricultural literature, the article is full of interesting and suggestive facts. It seems strange, however, that in its fifty or sixty pages only two short paragraphs should be devoted to the vital necessity of prompt legislation by Congress for the prevention of the spread of contagious diseases. Even in these, what is really of the greatest national importance—the prevention of the introduction of contagion among our vast mixed herds on the Western plains, by a rigid inspection of all improved stock sent among them every year by rail—is not even mentioned. According to the figures obtained during the special examination of the meat industries under the census of 1880, the number of cattle of all ages reached nearly forty millions (at \$25 per head, \$1,000,000,000), of which a third are in the States and Territories west of the Mississippi. The greater part of this region is practically unfenced, and must remain so for a long time. Should pleuro-pneumonia or a kindred contagious disease once be introduced, no isolation being possible, it would sweep the cattle from the face of the earth, as the similarly situated herds of Australia were destroyed by disease introduced by a single animal; and, from meat exporters, we should perhaps again become importers.

—In the June number of the *North American Review*, Mr. Isaac L. Rice, in an article entitled "Has Land a Value?" adds himself to the number of those who have broken a lance against Ricardo. To ask whether land has a value is the same thing as asking whether there is any such thing as rent. No, answers Mr. Rice, there is no such thing as rent—what is called rent is interest on the capital actually put into or upon the land. Ricardo says that "rent is that portion of the produce of the earth which is paid to the landlord for the use of the original and indestructible powers of the soil." Mr. Rice attacks this proposition with the thesis that there are no original and indestructible powers of the soil. The researches of agricultural chemistry, he tells us, have completely invalidated this conception. "It is now universally admitted that the soil is but the storehouse of certain chemicals, and that some of these chemicals are removed with every crop, or, as Liebig puts it, 'the field is sold with the crop.' After a certain number of harvests every field becomes exhausted and barren unless these chemicals are replaced. . . . And so the owner of the soil

obtains no value whatever from nature as a free gift." This doctrine was advanced by Henry C. Carey some forty years ago, and was afterward woven into a sort of poem, or beatitude, by Bastiat, in his 'Harmonies Économiques.' Carey went somewhat further than Mr. Rice goes. He contended that the whole value of the land of any country was not equal to the sum which had been laid out in bringing it into its existing state of cultivation—which, as Stuart Mill remarked, was equivalent to saying that if an area of land equal to that of the British Isles should rise out of the North Sea, it would not be worth while to bring it under cultivation, since the profits of the operation would not be equal to the ordinary rate of interest on capital. Mr. Rice would not go quite so far; he would hold it to be a matter of indifference whether such land should be reclaimed or not. It might pay the ordinary rate of interest or it might not. The argument drawn from agricultural chemistry is obviously erroneous, for while there may be some crops that are capable under bad farming of completely exhausting the fertility of land, there are others that have no such tendency. A crop of trees, for instance, can be raised from year to year by judicious cutting without limit as to time, and without any impairment of the original powers of the soil. In point of fact, Germany is provided with fire-wood and timber in this way. The same may be said of some of the most nutritious grasses, which renew themselves from year to year without labor, and which are all the better for being nibbled down by sheep and cattle. As to cereal grains, all that agricultural chemistry teaches is that there must not be too prolonged a pull at the chemical constituents of the soil without rest and refreshment. Agricultural chemistry teaches also that the rain, the atmosphere, and the sun are constantly supplying a large portion of what the cultivator abstracts from the soil, and that it is only the excess abstracted by cropping that must be restored by the farmer in order to keep the land up to its original fertility. The question of rent concerns itself only with that portion of the productiveness of the soil which does not require renewal by human labor. This is all that Ricardo contended for. Mr. Rice denies that there is any such portion. We apprehend that he has not had much to do with farming as a practical business.

—About two months ago Dr. Siemens, of London, read before the Royal Society a paper on the conservation of solar energy which has the merit of originality at least, and may well tend to perturb the complacency with which astronomical physicists have, of late years, come to rest in the belief that the contraction of the solar globe satisfactorily accounts for the maintenance of its heat. Dr. Siemens recapitulates the fundamental conditions of his theory as follows: (1) That aqueous vapor and carbon compounds are present in stellar or interplanetary space. (2) That these gaseous compounds are capable of being dissociated by radiant solar energy while in a state of extreme attenuation. (3) That these dissociated vapors are capable of being compressed into the solar photosphere by a process of interchange with an equal amount of reassociated vapors, this interchange being effected by the centrifugal action of the sun itself. If these conditions could be substantiated, we should gain the satisfaction that our solar system would no longer impress us with the idea of prodigious waste through dissipation of energy into space, but rather with that of well-ordered, self-sustaining action, capable of perpetuating solar radiation to the remotest future.

—The discovery of the ultimate nature of tubercular disease, which has recently been an-

nounced as having been made by Dr. Koch, Government Adviser in the Imperial Health Department of Berlin, acquires a special significance at the present time other than that derived from purely physiological or therapeutical considerations. It demonstrates more conclusively than any amount of argument the practical importance that attaches to experimentation on living animal bodies. As might have been expected, the opportunity has been advantageously used by the devotees of vivisection for promoting the interests of their cause; and in England, where physiological inquiry is in great measure hampered by the existence of a so-called anti-vivisection law, several prominent experimentalists have come boldly to the front and pointed out the moral. Dr. Koch's discovery can scarcely be said to be surprising; indeed, it can but barely be considered new. The fact that various diseases have their origin in the development of microscopic organisms within the tissues of the subject has long been established, partly through the labors of Koch himself, but more particularly through the classical researches of the French chemist and physiologist, Pasteur. That such organic developments were in some way or other connected with tubercular growths—the germ theory of formation—has also long been recognized, but it has been reserved for Dr. Koch to determine the exact nature of the organisms so connected, and to demonstrate that the *vera causa* of tubercular malformation is simply the rapid multiplication—at the expense of the tissues—of the infesting parasite, if so it may be termed. This was found in all cases examined to be a species of *bacillus*, allied to, but yet specifically distinct from, the *bacillus anthracis* of splenic fever, whose habitation in the tissues appears to be entirely independent of any predisposition on the part of the latter, whether through disorganization or otherwise, toward its reception. Hence, it is concluded, tubercular malformation is not primarily a disease *de ipso* of the tissues, but one that is induced through contagium. Perfectly healthy animals (rabbits, guinea-pigs) that had been inoculated with the vegetable virus artificially cultivated, and consequently fresh, were rapidly affected with loss of flesh, death in those infected being invariably the result of tuberculosis.

—Prof. Tyndall, commenting on Koch's discovery, says: "In no other conceivable way than that pursued by Koch could the true character of the most destructive malady by which humanity is now assailed be determined. And, however noisy the fanaticism of the moment may be, the common sense of Englishmen will not, in the long run, permit it to enact cruelty in the name of tenderness, or to debar us from the light and leading of such investigations as that which is here so imperfectly described." While the importance of the discovery, which will doubtless be confirmed by other investigators, cannot be denied, it is questionable if, judged from a humanitarian standpoint, the advocates of vivisection have in this particular instance made a very strong case for themselves. For, since tuberculosis is directly the outgrowth of germ-developments which are practically, at least as far as present knowledge is concerned, beyond either medical or physical control, and, indeed, respecting which precise biological information is still comparatively limited, it may be doubted whether a treatment for the disorganization could be advocated more rational than that which is implied in the regeneration of the tissues, or the one that is being actually followed at the present time. The interesting problem of hereditary transmission, with development of the disease only in after-life, presents itself in this connection.

—Part 1 of the second volume of Buchholz's 'Homerische Realien' has recently been published by Engelmann of Leipzig. It bears an appropriate dedication to Mr. Gladstone, who, in the third volume of his 'Homer and the Homeric Age,' discussed many of the subjects treated here. Buchholz's first volume was also in two parts. The first, appearing in 1871, described the Homeric cosmography and geography; the second, two years later, the zoölogy, botany, and mineralogy. The physical world having been thus disposed of in the first volume, the world of man becomes the subject of the second. The present part is concerned with the public life of the Homeric Greeks, including the organization of the state and the single departments of public activity—agriculture, gardening, care of cattle, hunting and fishing, trade, manufactures, music, warfare, weapons. A systematic arrangement makes reference easy, and excellent indexes in this and the previous volumes put within the student's ready command a mass of learning about the world as Homer knew it which is not easily accessible elsewhere.

—A year ago, Otto Maass, of Vienna, began the publication of a German weekly paper devoted, as its name (*Amerika*) indicates, entirely to American affairs. Thanks to the large number of Germans who have relatives in this country, it seems to meet with success. The great increase in the number of emigrants has caused the German Government organs systematically to misrepresent America, and the correction of such misstatements seems to be one of the principal aims of this paper. An article in the last number points out that the American newspapers are to a large extent responsible for many of the erroneous notions current among Germans in regard to this country. For instance, the exaggerated ideas about the lawlessness prevalent here are due to the long and detailed accounts given in our papers of every murder and other crime that happens in any part of the country within reach of telegraphic communication. German papers dispose of such crimes in a few lines in the police reports, except in cases of great sensational interest.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

Alexander Hamilton. By Henry Cabot Lodge. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882.

It is difficult for a new biographer to add anything to the story of Hamilton's life, and Mr. Lodge has done all that was possible in telling it anew, briefly, and in an attractive way. Time as it goes on does nothing but add to the lustre of his fame, and in laying down the book the reader's chief feeling is that his career is one about which there is no room for any difference of opinion; that he must always be regarded as one of the great statesmen and legislators of the world; that as long as modern society endures he will be remembered as one of the men who thought most profoundly and accurately about the principles which underlie government, the forces which give it stability and coherence, and the causes which shape, modify, and change it. As to the actual Government of the United States, it is hardly too much to say that it owes its existence to Hamilton more than to any other one man. Had the Constitution been defeated in the New York Convention, the formation of a permanent Union would have been, if not prevented, at any rate, long delayed; and it is to Hamilton's wonderful powers of persuasion, more than to any other one thing, that the change from a strongly adverse to a favorable majority in New York was owing. Had it not been for the 'Federalist,'

which still remains the best modern exposition of the art of government in the language, this result would certainly not have been reached.

It is when we compare Hamilton with his contemporaries that his great powers stand out most clearly in relief. A large part of his life was spent in a struggle for the direction of the Government with Jefferson. Jefferson was the leader and mouthpiece of the party which considered Hamilton's views of government fraught with danger to the country. Jefferson was victorious in the struggle, drove Hamilton from the field, and his party succeeded in giving the development of the Government a new direction. Jefferson's name is still used to conjure with as a party catch-word, and he is believed by large masses of voters to have formulated certain eternal principles of polity which, if preserved in their purity and carried out faithfully in practice, will always keep the country in the true path of constitutional progress. But what are these ideas? Can anything more be said of them than that, in the last resort, they amount to a profession of confidence in "the people"? What valuable principle of constitutional law, what contribution to the art of popular government, do they contain? Not one. In their day the two men were great rival leaders, and the popularity and power which Hamilton lost, Jefferson and his followers in great measure won. But Jefferson merely directed and helped to justify a popular and to a considerable extent an irrational movement. Hamilton's mind was one of the main sources of the very system of government under which we live, his voice was the most persuasive of its adoption, and it was under his direction that its course was so shaped that we are to-day still travelling the journey marked out by him.

Though Hamilton made mistakes in the course of his life which he had great occasion to regret, it is very hard now to name any point in his career as a public man at which his scheme of government for the United States could have been substantially altered with advantage to the country. He undoubtedly did what he could to make the Government strong in every sense of the word, and he had a firm belief in the necessary association of wealth and property with power. He would have liked to give property the combined authority and responsibility which he thought produced such excellent results in England; and hence he was called "British" during his life, though, as Mr. Lodge very clearly shows, the political terms drawn from European politics and applied to Americans of the last century ought to be regarded rather as party terms of abuse than as properly descriptive. Hamilton was, at bottom, intensely American. He was indifferent as between England and France, "except so far as he loathed the bloody anarchy of the one, and respected the stability and order of the other." He saw, as Washington did—indeed, probably before Washington perceived them—the wide-reaching political and commercial advantages to be attained by an early assumption of a position of complete neutrality in the quarrels of the Old World. Mr. Lodge's remarks on this subject, however, appear to us to go altogether too far:

"This was really the central point of the whole policy of Washington and Hamilton, and was one of the great landmarks established by the Federalists for the guidance of the republic. There is no stronger example of the influence of the Federalists, under the lead of Washington, upon the history of the country than this famous proclamation, and in no one respect did the individuality of Hamilton impress itself more directly on the future of the United States. So little was it understood at the time that when thirty years later the same principle, in an extended form, was enunciated by Mr. Monroe's Administration, it was hailed as a new doctrine, and incorporated as a leading article in the po-

litical creed of the United States. When adopted and put forth by Washington, this truism of to-day was hardly appreciated. The colonial spirit, which was the spirit of the past, made it seem impossible that the United States should be wholly apart from the affairs of Europe. The Federalists acted on the principle thus laid down while they held the power, maintaining a bold and strong neutrality, and ready to strike the first nation, no matter which it was, that dared infringe it. After the fall of the Federalists this doctrine slipped out of sight. For a vigorous neutrality, ever on the alert and ready for war, was substituted a timid, exasperating policy of peace, protected by commercial warfare. Ten years of bitter political conflict, including three years of foreign war, was the result, and by this harsh process the colonial spirit was finally exorcised. Then the national foreign policy, formulated, devised, and adopted by Washington and Hamilton, was popularly accepted under the Administration of Monroe." (P. 163.)

While there is no doubt that the neutrality policy of the first Administration was originated by Hamilton quite as much as by Washington, Mr. Lodge appears here to confuse two widely different things. Washington's neutrality was simply founded on a determination that the new Government should not be involved in any of the quarrels of the Old World then going on; that, as between France and England in particular, neither the United States nor its citizens should interfere in any way. Genet, the French agent, tried to use this country as a base of naval operations against England, just as the Confederate States used England three-quarters of a century later against us. His first act was to fit out privateers at Charleston, and proceed, as Mr. Lodge says, "with a sort of triumphal procession northward to Philadelphia." Jefferson was nearly forced to resign from the Cabinet on account of the *Little Sarah*, a privateer which Hamilton wished to have stopped on her way to sea, but which, through Jefferson's reliance on the promises of Genet, got away. No such matters as these are involved in the Monroe Doctrine, which grew out of a protest against any interference by Spain with the independence of her quondam subjects in this country. The neutrality policy of Washington was a proclamation that the country would not in any way have anything to do with European quarrels. The Monroe Doctrine was an announcement that Europe would interfere with the existing status of the governments of the New World at her peril.

It is not too much to say that in all the three departments of the Government, executive, legislative, and judicial, it was Hamilton who, at the outset, planned, explained, and vindicated the course that must be pursued by them. We are accustomed to attribute to Marshall the establishment of the judiciary as the supreme source of law, and to the credit of the actual work Marshall is, of course, entitled; but behind Marshall there are always the essays of the 'Federalist,' themselves the fountain from which Marshall's own views of the scheme of government which he expounded so ably were drawn. In his argument on the subject of the national bank, Hamilton satisfied Washington of the constitutionality of the scheme by an argument founded on the implied powers of the Constitution. In the case of *McCulloch vs. Maryland*, Marshall went over precisely the same ground, and, as Mr. Lodge very justly says, "the able and luminous decision of the Chief Justice adds nothing to the argument of the Secretary and takes nothing from it, nor is the work of the latter inferior to the opinion of the Judge in clearness and force of expression."

Mr. Lodge's volume is an excellent bit of compendious biography. It presents on the whole a very fair picture of an extraordinary man. Hamilton's genius seems to have been forced into

a precocious maturity by the exciting character of the events which began to shape themselves about him at the time when his life opened. Like Napoleon, Pitt, and so many others of his great contemporaries, Hamilton, instead of working his way slowly up, established his hold upon the government and direction of affairs from the day that he was admitted to a share in them, and leaped at a bound into a position which in quieter times men attain only after long years of patient struggle. His influence seems to have been due in great measure to the remarkable sincerity of his mind. His nature was profoundly truthful, and Mr. Lodge's biography is valuable as bringing out in a strong light this fundamental trait. He had, too, a great opportunity. He had an almost virgin political soil in which to apply and test the truths which speculation had convinced him were necessary and permanent. Hamilton believed in popular government, but he had no illusion that it was a sacrosanct institution, or that "the people" in the aggregate are wiser than the aggregate wisdom of the individuals who compose the mass. Above all, he never lost sight of the fundamental fact that, whatever the source of government, it is not an end in itself, but a means to the attainment of general prosperity, well-being, and order; that it must always be founded in the last resort on force. With the rose-water, sentimental view of government, Hamilton had no sympathy. He insisted that the doctrines of Rousseau in France, and Jefferson in the United States, tended merely to anarchy. He was right as to their tendency; if he failed to make full allowance for the numerous counterbalancing conservative forces, and thought that the Government, once in Republican, or, as we should say, Democratic hands, must go to the dogs, it was a mistake of a kind into which almost all strong party men fall, when they allow themselves the dangerous luxury of prediction.

MAX MUELLER'S KANT.

Kant's Critique of Pure Reason. Translated into English by F. Max Müller. 2 vols. London: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

"THAT Kant's 'Critique' will ever become a popular book, in the ordinary sense of the word, is impossible; but that it will for ever occupy a place in the small tourist's library which every thoughtful traveller across this short life's journey will keep by his side, I have no doubt." Hitherto, however, the English tourist has not been able to procure a copy of the guide-book adapted to his needs. Haywood's translation, prepared forty years ago, before the critical study of Kant had advanced far, is now antiquated, through a frequently imperfect understanding of the original. Meiklejohn's, published in Bohn's Library, is a creditable piece of literary work, showing a due comprehension of the difficult text and an English style no worse than the German. That its renderings are felicitous few persons who have benumbed their brains over its unsuggestive sentences will admit. Kant may not have written easily, but none the less he made some exceedingly hard reading. Meiklejohn has but a slender sense of the need of laying out simpler roads through the labyrinthine sentences. Dr. Stirling, in his recent 'Text-Book of Kant,' attempted to put the first half of the 'Critique' into a speech nearer the vernacular; but it proved to be the speech vernacular to Dr. Stirling, and not to the great body of English speakers. Up to this time, therefore, a book which has probably exercised a deeper influence than any other which the last century produced has never been rendered into easily readable English.

The cause is to be found in the book itself. Kant was a German professor, and one who exaggerated all the faults of his species. He is said to have been an agreeable lecturer, treating generally in the class-room only the more apprehensible aspects of his subject. What was deeper he considered unfit for public oral statement. He lectured extemporaneously from a few outline notes, using simple language. It is possible he may have permitted himself too broad a distinction between the requirements of those who hear and those who read, and that the distinction has worked as much to the disadvantage of his subsequent students as it is said to have benefited those who crowded his lecture-room. Philosophical Germany has been slow to learn that a writer is a teacher too, and stands in need of all the teacher's art for quickening sluggish attention. A style like that of Schopenhauer, or even of Lotze, of Sigwart or of Otto Pfleiderer, has become possible only since Germany left her chimney-corner and became a citizen of the world. Kant, isolated in an obscure provincial town, alone in that bachelor-home where no allusion to his philosophical system was allowed, writing in months what had been meditated in years, produced a jungle of sentences which no honest translator can render attractive. Had outward circumstances even been more favorable, the very nature of the task which he set himself—of being a philosophical Copernicus—must have prevented popular success. In the laborious twistings of his paragraphs may be read the birth-pangs of thought. He who talks of what was never talked of before must employ an uncouth terminology.

We do not then disparage Max Müller's labors as in any wise useless when we acknowledge that even he has not been able to give us a 'Critique' which reads as if written by a modern Englishman. "It is difficult," he well says, "to translate the hymns of the Veda and the strains of the Upanishads, the odes of Pindar, and the verses of Lucretius; but I doubt whether the difficulty of turning Kant's metaphysical German into intelligible and construable English is less." He has aimed at "a literal translation," and "thought far less of elegance, smoothness, or rhythm than of accuracy and clearness." And he has had a good measure of success. His translation is not a masterpiece. Probably it is not the one with which English students will finally rest content. Kant's sentences often retain their original unwieldy length (pp. 90, 236, 409, 494). No attempt is made to explicate technical phrases. Where one of them—*Dinge an sich*—was already beginning to be at ease in English as "things in themselves," the new barbarism is introduced of "things by themselves." Occasionally a slight clumsiness appears, as if the writer were giving but half his attention to the idiom of the language used. Kant mentions the opposing views of naturalists upon the question of the origin of species, and points out that there is a logic in the case deeper than either party detects. Müller renders, "But they need only consider the nature of the object, in order to understand that it is far too deeply hidden for both of them to enable them to speak from a real insight into the nature of the object." Yet, after all deductions are made, it still remains true that a page of Müller costs the reader less effort than a page of Meiklejohn—the best previous rendering—and that it generally gives Kant's meaning with superior precision. It is no inconsiderable advantage that the language from which and that into which Max Müller translates are both alike his own. To English readers his work is sure to bring Kant home better than anything we had before; and even those who read German readily will frequently gain something by looking up Max Müller's

understanding of an obscure passage. His translation "serves in some passages even as a commentary of the original." For the first time, too, we have the 'Critique' as it was originally written. Meiklejohn followed the second edition. The present rendering, occupying the whole of vol. ii., follows the first. The extensive additions made by Kant in the second edition fill about a third of vol. i. Unfortunately, the variations in single sentences are nowhere noted.

An attractive portion of the first volume, and one contrasting agreeably in its sprightliness with Kant's crabbed treatise, is the translator's long preface. Max Müller's enthusiasm for philosophy is genuine, and his expression of it vivacious. The special studies upon language which have made him famous have, he says, been merely attempts to work out one of the problems supplementary to Kant's system. "Kant's 'Critique' has been my companion through life." "Having once learned from Kant what man can and what he cannot know, my plan of life was very simple—namely, to learn, so far as literature, tradition, and language allow us to do so, how man came to believe that he could know so much more than he ever can know in religion, in mythology, and in philosophy. This required special studies in the field of the most ancient languages and literatures. But though these more special studies drew me away for many years toward distant times and distant countries, whatever purpose or method there may have been in the work of my life was due to my beginning life with Kant." One who has spent forty years in so naïve a devotion to a teacher may well be allowed a little garrulity in commending that teacher to others. Personal explanations take on a charm delivered in English so flexible and spirited as this. We readily assent to the translator's belief that he was peculiarly fitted for his task as we read the easy sentences in which that belief is stated. Up and down the pages passages occur which tempt the pencil to mark and the reader to turn back either for instruction or delight. "No one can admire more than I do the dashing style in which some of the most popular writers of our time have ridden up to the very muzzles of the old philosophical problems; but if I imagine Kant looking back from his elevated position on those fierce and hopeless onslaughts, I can almost hear him say what was said by a French general at Balaclava: 'C'est magnifique—mais ce n'est pas la guerre!'"

Max Müller rightly judged that "a pedigree of philosophical thought showing Kant's ancestors and Kant's descent" would form a valuable introduction to the 'Critique.' Distrusting his own ability to draw up this outline, he applied to Prof. Ludwig Noiré. He expresses great gratitude for the 360 pages of "Historical Introduction" which his friend furnished; but it is a scandalous performance—trite, turgid, and inaccurate. Locke is stated to have introduced the distinction of primary and secondary qualities into philosophy (p. 227). In the mediæval period, nearly all the citations are at second-hand. Schopenhauer's 'Parerga' is the main authority for Berkeley. There is no reference to Berkeley's own works. In treating of Malebranche, no notice is taken of the *tendue intelligible*, curious as the analogies of that doctrine are with Kant's space as a form of thought. Pages 57-64 present a good specimen of the author's skill in philosophizing on his own account. Where brevity is necessary, exactness and lucidity are necessary too. But Noiré produces paragraph after paragraph like the following: "If only the power of the intellect is sufficient, and the love of truth pure and vigorous, then, though often after a thousand pains and travails, truth rises to the light, or rather becomes itself

a light, illuminating the world, and changing the pale and indefinite glimmer of the moon into the brightest splendor of the sun. If this is not so, if the power of the striving intellect fails, then a chasm remains open—philosophy succumbs to scepticism, though always waiting and watching for a coming deliverer." If philosophy is to be a serious pursuit, an introduction to it so pretentious as this should be denounced.

The publishers issue the volumes handsomely: the paper is excellent, the type large, and the margins wide. The absence of an index is a serious defect.

RUSSIA AND THE RUSSIANS.—I.

L'Empire des Tsars et les Russes. Par Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu. Tome I. Le pays et les habitants. Paris: Librairie Hachette et Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern. 1881.

THERE is hardly an exaggeration in saying that the number of books on Russia is increasing from day to day, but good works on that empire are yet as rare as, say, sound and impartial works on the United States. Mackenzie Wallace's 'Russia,' a production of incomparably lighter calibre than Tocqueville's 'Democracy in America,' is still equally exceptional. Leroy-Beaulieu's 'L'Empire des Tsars' is evidently destined to become for a time the book on the subject. Among studies of countries by foreigners it cannot fail to take place in the very foremost rank, owing to unbiassed observation on the spot, diligent research among the best authorities in the national literature and press, a vast corrective correspondence with well-informed natives, and a minute sifting of results by a mind conscientiously critical. It is too extensive, and presupposes too much preliminary knowledge on the part of its public, to become as popular as Wallace's pleasing composition, and it nowhere equals that original play of genius with problems apparently novel which charms us in Tocqueville's 'Democracy'; but it surpasses the latter in breadth, and the former both in breadth and depth, and, if less attractive than either, it not only enlightens the reader by its slow but lucid demonstrations, but delights him by its felicitous illustrations and a diction worthy of the best periods of French literature. In a word, it is a great work. It disarms the reviewer's critical propensity, and allows him only to follow the author closely in some of his salient generalizations and summings-up. It is to consist of three, or possibly four, large volumes, but only the first is as yet before us.

The author considers the shape and extent of European Russia, and asks himself: Does it really form a part of Europe, differing from the rest only in proportions, in the scale of dimensions? or does its prodigious widening fully distinguish and separate it from Occidental Europe? Are not the conditions of civilization modified by the vastness of the area? Are Russia's geographical structure, its soil and climate, European? Entire Europe forms a peninsular triangle, the broad base of which rests completely on Asia and is bodily joined to it. Thus joined to Asia, Russia preserves that continent's configuration. Europe proper is distinguished from all other portions of the globe by two main traits, which have rendered it the natural seat of civilization: it is cut into parts by seas, peninsular, articulated—to speak with Humboldt—and it has, for its latitude, a surpassingly temperate climate. Russia, on the contrary, is one of the most compact, the most continental, countries of the globe. She has none of Europe's maritime climate; hers is continental—extremely cold in winter and excessively hot in summer, and almost untempered by seasons of transition.

The Gulf Stream does not reach her; the seas lave only her flanks, so remote from each other: arctic ice and winds hold her in bondage through most of the year; the flatness of the soil keeps her open to blasts both from the Polar circle and the parched deserts of Central Asia; she has no sheltering mountain ranges—the broken Ural hardly forms an exception—no sheltered valleys. Russia is horizontal and uniform not only geographically, but also geologically; the flatness of the surface is the result of the regular parallelism of the subterranean strata. Without seas and without mountains, she sadly lacks humidity, especially in her eastern parts. All these conditions place her in complete physical opposition to Occidental Europe; or, rather, naturally considered, Europe, resting on Russia as an Asiatic base, begins only where the continent becomes contracted by the Black Sea and the Baltic.

Is Russia, therefore, Asiatic? Is she to be classed among the sleeping or stationary nations of the remote East? By no means. She is no more Asiatic than European. By the *ensemble* of her natural conditions she differs from historic Asia just as much as from Europe proper. It was not an accident which prevented her from developing an Asian civilization. On both sides of the Ural, Russia forms a particular region, with special physical features, embracing all the northern plains of the old continent, all its colossal depression—the Lower Europe and Lower Asia of Humboldt. Rather than to either Occidental Europe or old Asia, she is to be compared to North America, which she adjoins in Siberia. Russia is one of those terrestrial regions which boundless extent and asperity of climate disqualify from becoming cradles of civilization. Incapable of nourishing civilization in its first days, she is admirably adapted to receive it and raise it. Like North America, she offers to Europe, outside of her extreme belts, an immense field for the development of human activity on a vaster scale. Her climate is inclement, her forests are meagre, her steppes treeless; but what man needs is less richness of the soil than the facility of subduing and using it. Russia's fauna is poor, her flora is poor; there is no variety, no display of power, nothing grand—except the vastness of the land; but neither has her living nature, in its debility—in its lack of fecundity and robustness—any strength to oppose to man. The soil is tame and docile. Unlike Brazil or Hindostan, where man becomes the petty slave of a luxuriant, glowing, wondrous, and unconquerable nature, the vast territory of Russia is made for free labor; it needs no African negro, no Chinese cooly. The Russian soil does not use up its cultivator; it does not threaten his race with degeneracy; it bears no creoles.

The Russian people, the *muzhik*, is the main colonizer, almost the sole colonizer, of the Russian lands. This fact, apparently so simple, hides difficulties and inferiorities of all kind. Instead of the most enterprising men of the most advanced countries of Europe, such as are colonizing the United States and Australia, we find here a people kept back by nature and history—a people of peasants, who yesterday were serfs; instead of freedom, independence, and individual sovereignty, we see an autocratic government, a pestering administration, communal bonds tying man to man and the tiller to the ground. Russia's colonizing expansion is crippled by standing armies, a long military service, a narrow centralization, an omnipotent bureaucracy. These galling drawbacks have repelled European immigration, and will continue to repel it. Russia will in vain offer to the immigrant admirable lands waiting for the plough—her very next neighbors of Scandinavia

prefer to wander beyond the ocean to the northwest of the United States.

And Russia is a country in process of colonization. Though old, she is still forming. She is at the same time an empire of a thousand years and a colony of a century or two. She may be likened to the United States and also to Turkey. She is a country both new and old; a semi-Asiatic monarchy and young European colony; a Janus with one face old and worn out and the other adolescent, almost infantile. This duality is the source of striking contrasts whithersoever we turn in Russia: contrasts in private life, in character, in the state; contrasts so frequent that they form the rule, a law of contradictions. Everything has contributed to produce them: a position between Asia and Europe—so to say, astride of both; a blending of races—Slavic, Finnic, Tartaric—far from complete; a historical past formed by the contests of two worlds, by violently alternating phases. From these contrasts spring the different judgments passed on Russia, the falsity of which lies very often in exhibiting only one side. The law of contradictions is further discoverable in society, whose classes, high and low, are divided by a wide chasm; in the political field, where liberalism is often attempted, but generally weighted down by inveterate inertia; even in the individual, in his ideas, sentiments, and manners. The contrast is both in form and in essence, in the single man as well as in the nation. The state, a military monarchy and young colony at the same time, has the weakness of either, and the full force of neither. With deserts to people and clear, Russia is doomed by her contact with Europe to bear military and financial burdens like the oldest and most civilized of nations. Her tasks are those of both Europe and America, while her instruments are inferior to those of either. She resembles an actor forced to play before having learned his part—a man trying to acquire his first education amid the toils and struggles of mature age.

The least Slavic of all the Slavs, the Great-Russian, has been the Slavic colonizer *par excellence*. Treated by his enemies as a Turanian, a Mongolian, an Asiatic, his national origins are found in the West: on the Dnieper, between the Dnieper and the Duna, at Novgorod. His march has been from Europe to Asia; from White Russia to beyond the Ural, the Caspian, and the Caucasus. His destinies are imaged in the great river, the course of which he has followed from its source to its delta: like the Volga, he has run his course from Europe to Asia. When, under Ivan III. and Ivan IV., and later under Peter the Great, he turned as a foe toward the Baltic and the West, he only retraced his steps toward his European base. His history is the history of a struggle with Asia. The centuries of Tartar domination never made him forget his European origin. Victorious over Asia, he yet, during his advance from the Dnieper to the Ural, became both morally and physically changed by his contact with the populations subdued and absorbed. There is in the Russian more heaviness, both of body and mind, than in Slavs of less mixed blood; Aryan beauty is there more rare. The Great-Russian often betrays Finnic descent by his flat face, small eyes, and prominent cheekbones. To Finnic influence and Tartar oppression he owes greater harshness, but also greater robustness, than marks other Slavs. He has less independence and individuality; he has more patience and consistency. He has not that mobility which has been the bane of the Pole. The extreme ductility of the Slav has in him been tempered by foreign, chiefly Finnic, alloy; the loss of purity is compensated for by a gain in solidity. The fusion of race, as elsewhere, has been productive of vigor at the expense of re-

finement. But Finnic and Tartar blood has not transformed the Great-Russians into Finns or Tartars. They are not Aryans and Slavs merely by language and historical development. They are much more properly Slavs than the French or Spaniards are Latins. A considerable portion of their blood is Caucasian, Slavic. The proportion can hardly be determined; it varies according to region and class. In the bulk of the nation Slavic blood probably preponderates.

The Head-Hunters of Borneo. A Narrative of Travel up the Mahakkam and down the Barito; also, Journeys in Sumatra. By Carl Bock. With thirty colored plates, map, and other illustrations. London: S. Low & Co. 1881. Pp. xvi.-344. Cr. 8vo.

THIS work is a semi-official document, as the author was appointed in 1879, by the Dutch Government, to visit Koetei, one of its tributary states, "and to furnish the Government with a report upon the native races of the interior, and to make observations upon, and collections of, the fauna of that part of the island." The Sultan of Koetei enjoys a nominal sovereignty over all the country drained by the river Mahakkam, which flows in a southeasterly direction for some 600 miles, and empties into the Straits of Macassar. The country, though exceedingly fertile, and apparently rich in mineral wealth, is thinly peopled with a mixture of races, including the aborigines, the Dyaks, Malays, Chinese, and Boegis. The latter are an unruly people, emigrants from the neighboring Celebes, who have settled in considerable numbers near the coast. They are much given to running-a-muck. "In Macassar and other large towns the native police are armed with a long, two-pronged fork of bamboo, something like the humble 'clothes-prop'; and when they see an 'amok' Boegis, they place the fork against his throat, and hold him at bay till he can be secured." During the author's stay at the capital "one night one of these excitable gentry killed no less than three men, and wounded five others, before he himself fell a victim to a well-directed blow from a mandau." The Sultan, "one of the most intelligent rulers in the Malay Archipelago," showed himself favorable to the objects of the expedition, and not only furnished the necessary means for ascending the river, but accompanied the traveller to the end of his journey. He combined with his official duties the business of money-lending, cock-fighting, and gambling. He had "over sixty large fighting-cocks, each of which is kept in a room in the palace, under an oval wicker cage. . . . The effect of sleeping in close contiguity to a select company of sixty of the finest, strongest, heartiest, and gamest of the game-cocks of Koetei may be imagined." The voyage up the river, made in a prau hollowed out from the trunk of a single tree, was entirely without incident. The country was so desolate that sometimes a day passed without meeting a boat or seeing a dwelling, while the banks were clothed with a vegetation so dense that it was "impossible to penetrate into the forest more than a few yards from the river-side."

A hundred miles or more to the north, on a branch of the river, was the important Dyak town, Long Wai, where Mr. Bock stayed seven weeks, studying the people and making collections. Here he had the good fortune to meet several "of the tribe or race known as 'Orang poonan,' or Forest People," supposed to be the aborigines of Borneo. "These people live day and night in the open air, almost entirely naked, with no more shelter in showery weather than that afforded by an attap mat, which they then place over instead of under them when they lie

down on the ground to sleep." Their weapons are mandaus, short swords obtained from the Dyaks, and "the sumpitan (blowing-tube) and poisoned arrows, in the manufacture and use of which they are all expert." They proved themselves valuable collectors for Mr. Bock, and, though excessively shy, being friendly to the Dyaks but holding no communication with the Malays, he at last prevailed upon them to take him to one of their forest homes. By this means he had a most favorable opportunity for studying their modes of life and especially their women, whom no European had ever before seen. There are some striking pictures in this volume, from sketches made by the author during this visit, which give a very graphic idea of this little-known race.

The Dyaks of Long Wai were celebrated for their bravery and their success in head-hunting, but the Dutch have so nearly suppressed this barbarous custom in their own dominions that it was difficult to detect any traces of its existence. The skulls were hidden from view, and the only visible sign was an occasional leaning-post or "monument that a party has been out head-hunting and returned with one or more heads." This practice, "as carried on by all the Dyak tribes not only in the independent territories, but also in some parts of the tributary states, is part and parcel of their religious rites. Births and 'namings,' marriages and burials, not to mention less important events, cannot be properly celebrated unless the heads of a few enemies, more or less, have been secured to grace the festivities or solemnities. . . . It is a rule among all the tribes that no youth can regularly wear a mandau, or be married, or associate with the opposite sex, till he has been on one or more head-hunting expeditions." Further in the interior he found the Tring Dyaks, who added to this custom that of cannibalism, which is probably confined to this tribe, and the author says: "I noticed that the other Dyak tribes did not go near the Trings during their stay at Moeara Pahou, not disguising their fear of them and their disgust at their cannibal practices." A still more interesting people, of whom he heard much during the course of his journey, though unfortunately he was unable to see any of them, were the "Orang boentoet—literally, tail-people." He was assured by one of the Sultan's servants "that he had himself some years ago seen the people in Passir. . . . As to the all-important item of the tail, Tjiropon declared with a grave face that the caudal appendage of these people was from two to four inches long; and that in their homes they had little holes cut or dug in the floor on purpose to receive the tail, so that they might sit down in comfort." This man was sent with an escort to the Sultan of Passir, with the request that some of these people might be sent to Bandjermasin, the Dutch capital of southern Borneo. It is hardly necessary to say that he returned without success, though still persisting in the truth of his story. Accordingly, a second mission was sent, accredited by the Dutch Resident, which finally brought back word from the Sultan "that the only *Orang boentoet* he had ever heard of were those, so called, forming his suite." It appears that his personal attendants were known as the "*Orang boentoet di Sultan di Passir*—literally, the tail-people of the Sultan of Passir."

Among the curious customs which Mr. Bock describes is that of the elongation of the lobe of the ear, which reached in one woman, whose ear he carefully measured, 4.75 inches, the total length of the ear being 7.1 inches. Tattooing is also very generally practised, and oftentimes the patterns are very elaborate and beautiful. He confirms the testimony given by other travellers that the climate of Borneo is not especially

unhealthy nor the heat unbearable, though it lies under the equator. "Smallpox occasionally makes serious ravages among the people. As a safeguard against this disease they have a sort of vaccination system, wherein faith or belief plays a greater part than medical science." It appears to consist of simply burning several places on the arm or thigh. But the depopulation of the country must be largely due to head-hunting, and though in the Dutch provinces the inhabitants are increasing in numbers, the Dyaks seem to be gradually dying out. The North Borneo Company, with a view to encourage Chinese emigration, have just appointed Sir Walter H. Medhurst, formerly Consul at Shanghai and the author of one of the best books on China yet written, their agent in the East. The concluding chapters of Mr. Bock's work, which for the excellence of its typography and illustrations deserves a special word of praise, describe a previous expedition to Sumatra for the purpose of making a collection of its fauna. In this he was very successful, though, unfortunately, the larger part of his acquisitions was lost in the Red Sea.

Studies in Medieval History. By Charles J. Stille, late Provost of the University of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1882. 12mo, pp. 473.

THE title of Mr. Stille's book is somewhat misleading: by "studies" one generally understands the detailed investigation or elaboration of special points, it may be wholly disconnected with one another. But the book before us is a systematic presentation of mediæval history, originally a course of lectures, and still preserving most of the characteristics of lectures. They are, as historical lectures should be, rather a commentary upon history than history itself, and as such they will be found very acceptable. They contain a clear, well-connected sketch of the leading characteristics of the Middle Ages, presenting for the most part accepted and familiar views, but put in a way to be seldom commonplace, and often very suggestive. Facts are so grouped and brought into relation with one another as to give the effect of considerable novelty of treatment.

The chapters are sixteen in number, beginning with "General Characteristics of the Mediæval Era," and ending with "The Era of Secularization"—two chapters which show the author at his best, as giving good opportunity for the elaboration of general views. An appendix contains a well-selected list of books of reference (rather of "reading" it should be, for very few of them are really designed for reference). No two persons would make the same list, and it is always easy enough in such lists to find omissions; nevertheless, we are surprised to miss so excellent and recent a book—and the production of Mr. Stille's own State—as Coppée's "Conquest of Spain." There are some strange misprints: *Knighton* for *Kingston* (Frederic II.); *Donol* for *Doniol* (*Classes ouvrières*); *Worn* for *Worms* (*Ligue Hanséatique*); while Professor Rogers's book should be given as "History of Agriculture and Prices."

When we take up the consideration of details, particularly in the chapters on institutions and political history, we cannot always agree with the author, and in some cases there appear to be positive errors. We question (p. 42) whether it is correct to call the Germans before the invasions of the fifth century "wanderers"; it seems evident that they had passed out of the nomadic stage before the time of Tacitus. At any rate, if they were wanderers, they did not live in "what are called 'village communities,'" for these are wholly incompatible with the nomadic

stage of society. We believe, indeed, that, in what may be called "the primitive Teutonic system," while having passed out of the nomadic stage, they had not yet settled so completely as to form village communities; we have no objection to the view that the Anglo-Saxons had the village-community system at the time of the migration (p. 201). Inaccuracy rather than positive error is found in such statements as these: The lands of the Anglo-Saxons "were all charged with the burden of *trinoda necessitas*" (p. 206); it is regarded now as proved that this was a burden on all freemen, but not on all land (see Lodge, 'Anglo-Saxon Law,' p. 61). The date of Egbert's reduction of Northumbria, and therefore of the beginning of the kingdom of England (so far as it is now established), was 827 (p. 208). The division "into great provinces," abolished by William the Conqueror (p. 219), was Danish, not Saxon. When (p. 225) of the two "fundamental propositions concerning government" of Magna Charta, it is said that "they have always been retained in England," it is forgotten that the provision with regard to scutages and aids was omitted in the charter of Henry III., and that this right had to be wrested again from Edward I. William the Conqueror is said (p. 229) to have refused to render homage to the Pope, alleging that "his fathers before him had refused to do so." But none of his "fathers" had been kings of England; his words were, *antecessores meos*. St. Bernard is called (p. 355) one of the principal agents in the Albigenian Crusade; he died 1153, and would have been at the time of this crusade about one hundred and twenty years old.

The interesting chapter (xiv.) on the "Laboring Classes" presents some views with which we do not wholly agree. In the first place, it may be observed that the *latifundia* were not exclusively sheep-pastures (pp. 19, 389). What is more important, the *collegia* suppressed during the civil dissensions of Rome were not guilds of artisans, but political clubs, *collegia sodalicia*, nominally religious in their organization, having generally the local cult of the *lares compitales* for their gathering-point. The description of the *coloni* is given correctly (p. 392), and we hoped to find a discussion of one of the most important and difficult questions in social history when we read the words: "Let us mark the transition from the Roman *colonus* to the Teutonic serf or villain; for the last relation grew out of the first as a consequence of the invasions." But the question, although started, is not discussed. In the last words, however, we think there is a fundamental error. Medieval serfdom is not the outgrowth of the *colonus*, except in so far as the descendants of a large proportion of the *coloni* became serfs. Nor is the condition of the two classes identical, although their legal status is no doubt essentially the same. It was a fundamental feature of medieval serfdom that the land occupied by the serf was paid for, in part at least, by labor performed upon the lord's estate or demesne. This is the source of the oppressive *corvées* (wrongly defined, p. 403; the exactions here described fall under the definition of *banalité*). The *coloni*, on the other hand, cultivated their estates on their own account, paying for them the so-called *canon*—generally, one-half the produce. This is the source of the modern *métayers* (*medietarii*) of southern France and Italy.

The account given of the origin of serfdom (p. 393) is correct if, instead of power "originally" resting upon possession of land and difference of rank, we read "in feudal times." The original Teutonic system did not rest upon land, but upon personal freedom. The description which follows, of the nature of the grievances of the peasantry and the process of emancipa-

tion, while very suggestive, as emphasizing a point of view which is generally overlooked, is nevertheless inadequate. Mr. Stillé describes this process as consisting essentially in "the substitution of a contract for fixed service for the arbitrary and capricious demands of the feudal superior." But when we read of Edward III. "selling manumissions," we ought to note that long before the time of Edward III. the obligations of the serfs were precisely fixed, and recorded, with their value in money. Sugenheim ('*Aufhebung der Leibeigenschaft*,' p. 116) describes emancipation as consisting essentially in successive and individual ameliorations (*Erleichterungen*) of the condition of the serfs; one abuse after another being *bought* by the individual serfs or by communities.

The account of the peasantry is followed by a description of the municipalities and their institutions. This contains an admirable brief description of the trade-guilds, and a correct statement of their relation to the municipal government. This came, however, rather late in the Middle Ages. For the origin of the municipalities we must look to a different class. Three features of this movement are mentioned (p. 397): the municipal governments, the trade corporations, and the "gildes or confréries, composed of artisans usually, but not always nor necessarily forming part of the trade corporations." We think the author's attention is here too exclusively directed to France, where alone the *confréries* were, as a rule, independent of the trade-guilds. Nor even here were they of much importance in municipal history. On the other hand, he omits the merchants' guild, or *Hanse*, which was fundamentally different from the trade-guilds, or *Zünfte*, and which in England and Germany, and to some extent in France also, was the starting-point of municipal life.

While we thus take exceptions to some of Mr. Stillé's positions in regard to the industrial history of the Middle Ages, we heartily welcome this part of his work, as treating sympathetically and with much genuine insight a greatly neglected department of social history.

Life in Hawaii. By Titus Coan. New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 1882. 12mo, pp. viii. 340.

MR. COAN'S narrative is the record of a life that has been full of unusual experience; and we may premise that the record is a fuller one than the title promises, for it includes the writer's whole life from childhood to age, excepting only that part of which he had already published an account in his 'Adventures in Patagonia' (New York, 1879). Titus Coan was born in Killingworth, Conn., on the 1st of February, 1801. There was no augury of a missionary career in his earlier days. The military spirit that had been kindled by the events of 1812-15 lingered throughout his youth even in staid Connecticut, and in 1821 young Coan was an ambitious lieutenant in a regiment of militia. Then came the epoch of the religious revivals under his cousin, Asahel Nettleton. Mr. Coan left the militia regiment, and, after several other tentative experiments in life, began his studies for the ministry in 1831. Two years later he was sent on a missionary exploring tour to Patagonia, barely escaping from the savages of that inhospitable country. In 1834 he was married, and shortly afterward embarked with his bride for Honolulu, where they arrived after a six months' voyage around Cape Horn. Mr. Coan was assigned to the districts of Hilo and Puna, which include a hundred miles of the coast line of Hawaii, and there he has since resided.

The purely "evangelical" side of Mr. Coan's labors has been familiar for many years to that

part of the public who take interest in missionary work. It has been striking from its magnitude, the large majority of the adult population of Hilo and Puna having been gathered into Mr. Coan's church within a few years after his arrival. We will not enter into the question of the positive quality of these conversions; for better or for worse, they were essentially of the same nature as those which are now wrought in a Western "revival," and their effects were at least as deep and as durable. The circumstance of their being wrought upon such seemingly different material—upon heathens whose chief divinity was Pele, and whose paradise was the pit of raging fire in Kilauea—made surprisingly little difference in the phenomena presented. And this, to our thinking, gives the chief interest to this part of Mr. Coan's record—the undeniable fact, namely, that a religious revival in Polynesia is almost absolutely the same thing as a religious revival in the United States. The same excitement is observed, the same cries and tears, the same revulsions of joy, and the same outcome of the process as those which occur under the ministrations of Moody and Sankey. The phenomena are identical. In no other region outside of Polynesia that is known to Protestant missionaries has this close correspondence been observed. The success of American Protestant missions has been not exactly confined to Polynesia, but it has been far greater in Polynesia than anywhere else; and it is not unreasonable to find in this common ground of emotion and susceptibility between the Polynesian and the Anglo-Saxon something more than the "providential" explanation of the success of missions in the Pacific. The facts afford a presumption, hitherto, we believe, unnoticed, in favor of the doctrine already advocated by ethnologists, that the Polynesians and the Anglo-Saxons are descended from an assignable common parentage.

This question is not, we hardly need say, broached in the autobiography, which is a direct and simple narrative, told with a quaintness in the style which reminds us at times of 'John Woolman's Diary.' A passage descriptive of Mr. Coan's perilous crossing of torrents in freshet, while making his arduous foot-tours, may be quoted. When the streams, he says, were not too swift,

"I mounted upon the shoulders of a sturdy aquatic native, holding on to his bushy hair, when he moved carefully down the slippery bed of the river, bearing up-stream against a current of ten knots, and moving one foot at a time sideways among the slimy boulders in the bottom, and then bringing the other foot carefully up. Thus slowly feeling his way across, he would land me safe, with a shout and a laugh, on the opposite bank. But this is a fearful way of crossing. The cataracts are so numerous, the waters so rapid, and the uneven bottom so slippery, that the recovery from a fall is often impossible, the current hurrying one swiftly over a precipice into destruction. . . . I once crossed a full and powerful river in this way, not more than fifty feet above a cataract of 426 feet in height. A missionary brother of another station, seeing me landed safely, and knowing that this crossing would save about six miles of hard and muddy walking, followed me on the shoulders of the same bold native that took me over. But before he had reached the middle of the flood he trembled and cried out with fear. The bearer said: 'Hush! hush! be still, or we perish together.' The brother still trembling, the native with great difficulty managed to reach a rock in the centre of the river, and on this he seated his burden, commanding him to be quiet and sit there until he was cool (he was already drenched with rain and river-spray), when he would take him off. This he did in about ten minutes, and landed him safely by my side."

Roads suitable even for a horse-track were not constructed in Mr. Coan's parish for twenty years or more after his arrival, and the athletic missionary made his way on foot throughout the

long extent of coast and among the mountains which his parish included. Kilauea, the greatest volcano in the world, lies within his field, and his visits to it and to the summit craters of Mauna Loa have been frequent. Of their eruptions he has probably seen more than any other observer. We make room for the following account of the fire-fountain as it appeared when he gained the heights of Mauna Loa, in advance of his guides, on the 27th of February, 1852:

"At half-past three P.M. I reached the crater, and stood alone in the light of its fires. It was a moment of unutterable interest. I was 10,000 feet above the sea, in a vast solitude untrodden by the foot of man or beast, amidst a silence unbroken by any living voice. I was blinded by the insufferable brightness. . . . The hills smoked and the earth melted, and I saw the gushings from the awful throat of the crater burning with intense white heat. I saw the vast column of melted rocks mounting higher and still higher, while dazzling volleys and coruscations shot out like meteors in every direction, exploding all the way up the ascending column of 1,000 feet, with the sharp rattle of infantry fire in battle. There were unutterable sounds as the fierce fountain sent up the seething fusion to its utmost height. It came down crashing like a storm of fiery hail in conflict with the continuous ascending volume, a thousand tons of the descending mass falling back into the burning throat of the crater, where another thousand were struggling for vent."

This tremendous action, it may be noted, was so uniform and regular that Mr. Coan approached the lava fountain within forty yards on the windward side.

Doubtless the main result of missionary labor upon the Polynesians has been to hasten the destruction of the race—a circumstance which we may be permitted to regret. But of this the individual laborers have not been conscious, and we can hardly hold them responsible. It was one of the fatalities of philanthropy that the Hawaiians should perish. Mr. Coan's own share in the work has been that of a kindly and single-hearted laborer, and his record has a charm that will be felt even by those who condemn the entire work of missionaries among the Polynesians as a race-destroying blunder. 'Life in Hawaii' has found a careful editor, if we may judge from the initials appended to the introductory note, in the son of the author.

Purcell. By William H. Cummings. Scribner & Welford. 1881.

MR. CUMMINGS is a prominent member of the Purcell Society, which was founded in London in 1876 "for the purpose of doing justice to the memory of Henry Purcell, firstly by the publication of his works, most of which exist only in MS., and, secondly by meeting for the study and performance of his various compositions." He has edited Purcell's "Yorkshire Feast Song," which was published four years ago; and it would have been difficult for Mr. Hueffer to find a more competent biographer of Purcell for his "Great Musicians" series. And yet it cannot be said that Mr. Cummings has succeeded in writing an interesting book. It contains too many facts and details that are simply correct without being instructive or entertaining; and many of them fairly come within the sphere of the Society for the Suppression of Useless Knowledge. The series for which this volume was written aims at giving the general public some information regarding the leading composers of various countries. But, surely, no one but a musical antiquary cares to read a hundred pages of details concerning compositions of which he has never heard the names, and which there is but little chance of his ever hearing in a concert hall. The author might plead that so little is known about the life of Purcell that nothing was

left for him to do but write a sort of descriptive catalogue in chronological order. This, to a certain extent, is the case with Schubert and other composers whose lives have been uneventful; but the biographer of Schubert has the advantage that most of the works he writes about are well known to the reader, who will therefore be glad to know something about the time and circumstances of their origin.

Perhaps Mr. Cummings is less to blame in this matter than the editor, Mr. Hueffer. Instead of devoting a whole volume to Purcell, it would have been better to associate with him three or four other prominent English composers. Waiving this point, however, Purcell doubtless more than any other English composer deserves the honor of being ranked with the "Great Musicians." He is not only rated as the greatest English composer by his own countrymen, but Von Dommer, the German historian, says that he is "the only true musical genius England has ever produced." He flourished in the second half of the seventeenth century (1658-1695), and during that time exercised a great influence on the taste of the English people, no less by his own music than by fostering an appreciation of the more noble and artistic Italian music of that period as against the frivolous and superficial French music cultivated in court circles, and thus paving the way for the appreciation of his successor, Handel.

The most striking features of Purcell's genius were his great productivity and versatility. According to Chrysander, Handel's biographer, he was surpassed in every single point by some other contemporary writer, Lully and Corelli being better composers of instrumental pieces, Steffani of duets, Scarlatti and Keiser of arias and recitatives, and the Italians in general of symmetrical and singable choruses; but he surpassed them all, thanks to his genuine dramatic instinct, in combining these various features in one and the same work. His first opera, "Dido and Æneas," was written in his twenty-third and not his seventeenth year, as is generally asserted, and there is a tradition that he himself sang and acted one of the parts in it, written for alto voice. Had he received more encouragement as a dramatic composer, and not died at the early age of thirty-seven, he would doubtless have anticipated some improvements made by later operatic composers, if we may judge by what he did accomplish and by the following passage, which occurs in the preface to "The Prophetess" (1690), and which shows that he correctly estimated the advantages music gains by a union with poetry:

"Musick and Poetry have ever been acknowledged Sisters, which walking hand in hand supports each other: As Poetry is the harmony of Words, So Musick is that of Notes: and as Poetry is a Rise above Prose and Oratory, so is Musick the exaltation of Poetry. Both of them may excel apart, but sure they are most excellent when they are joyn'd because nothing is then wanting to either of their Perfections: for thus they appear like Wit and Beauty in the same Person. Poetry and Painting have arriv'd to their perfection in our own Country: Musick is yet but in its Nonage, a forward Child which gives hope of what it may be hereafter in ENGLAND, when the Masters of it shall find more Encouragement. 'Tis now learning ITALIAN which is its best Master, and studying a little of the French Air, to give it somewhat more of Gayety and Fashion. Thus being farther from the Sun we are of later Growth than our Neighbour Countries, and must be content to shake off our Barbarity by degrees."

Garfield's Place in History: An Essay. By Henry C. Pedder. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1882.

THE burden of "placing" our contemporaries "in history" may with a good conscience be devolved upon posterity, whose placing is the only one that will stick. Mr. Pedder recognizes

this so far as to discuss it at the end rather than at the beginning of his essay; and rather inconsequently concludes that it is possible "at this early day to properly define his [Garfield's] place in history" because "the calm, dispassionate view of the historian" will probably not be the same as "that warm and living appreciation which time is apt to diminish." From this it appears that we should understand by his title the place which Garfield ought to have in history; and this place, he assumes, is beside Washington and Lincoln.

Now, just as no one on the eve of the first Chicago Convention would have ranked Lincoln with Washington, no one, we venture to say, would on the eve of the second have joined Garfield with either in a deliberate judgment of our national indebtedness to him. It will not, of course, be pretended that his behavior or public utterances during the canvass and after his election, or his brief administration of four months, added anything to his previous title to so exalted a place on the roll of American worthies. His cruel fate, again, bravely met as it was, was as purely extrinsic as that of Lord Frederick Cavendish. So that one is at a loss to explain the selection of Washington and Lincoln as the obvious peers with whom to associate him in gratitude as well as in memory for all time. Mr. Pedder fails to make clear the grounds of such an association, or to substantiate his dictum that "the estimate of a man's own time, though not always reliable, is quite as likely to be correct as the verdict of posterity"—in which case, it need hardly be remarked, there would be no motive for forestalling that verdict.

It happens that an anonymous writer quite as warmly and more aggressively disposed to uphold the reputation of the late President, and who makes the same collocation of great names in a little pamphlet essay on "The Idea of Garfield" (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.), confesses that "it is chiefly as the possessor of great qualities that we must remember and honor Garfield. . . . It is to a great extent as an idea, not in realized works, that Garfield remains with us." And, attempting himself also to fix Garfield's place in history, he says—with true forecast, as we believe: "The greatest work of Garfield's career will be hereafter reckoned his strong and intelligent finance speeches, made when the inflation craze was sweeping the country, and when politicians of both parties were eager to adopt an irredeemable currency." Mr. Pedder would probably not be content with this, any more than he would be to rest Lincoln's Washingtonian greatness on his debates with Douglas in Illinois; but the moral is plain, that if two admirers, "of a man's own time," cannot agree more nearly on the grounds of reverence for their hero, they are not likely to discredit the value of time, perspective, and silence in ordering the judgments of history.

Noah Webster. By Horace E. Scudder. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1882.

THE second volume of "American Men of Letters" is devoted to Noah Webster, and very fitly. He was not great in belles-lettres; but there is no American who has devoted himself more completely to book-work, or left a deeper mark by it on the English language, or won a wider fame. Mr. Scudder's book is not a common biography. It does not trace the life of Webster from year to year and from place to place; nor is it an attempt to present an elaborate picture of him at his literary work, such as we have of Southey and Gibbon, and of his brother lexicographers, Johnson, Grimm, and Littré. It is more like a very long magazine article on Webster and his times. A good many important

facts in his life are given in one place or another, too often without dates, and they are told in a pleasant style, and in such order and form as to be interesting to a casual reader, if not altogether satisfactory to a statistician. There are somewhat extended descriptions and estimates of his principal works. A large part of the book, however, consists of discussions of the literary and scholarly condition of New England and New Englanders, and other matters which might belong to a description of the times of Webster, but which are so little connected with him as to look like padding, and to make the impression that the writer has found Webster himself rather a meagre subject. This effect is increased by the attitude and tone of the author. Mr. Scudder writes of Webster and his times with a certain playful condescension. Webster distinguished himself at Yale College. President Stiles's mention of this leads Mr. Scudder to say: "Each college made believe very hard that its students were scholars, and its scholastic life the counterpart of historic universities." That is hardly a graphic description of Yale and Harvard. In 1812 Mr. Webster betook himself to Amherst with his apparatus, and devoted himself wholly to researches for his dictionary. The ten years that he spent there were the great years of his literary life. Mr. Scudder's description of it is: "He had withdrawn himself into the wilderness." That is hardly a graphic description of Amherst. Webster records that he was musician in a college military company which escorted General Washington from New Haven; whereupon Mr. Scudder:

"The last sentence is a faint hint at an amusing and pardonable little vanity of Webster's, who, as the reader will discover later, liked to think he had a hand in pretty much every important measure in the political and literary history of the country in those early days, and remembered that when the great Washington appeared, Webster was ready with the prelusive life."

Webster graduated in 1778, nineteen years old. His father was a descendant of Governor Webster, of Connecticut, and still lived on the family farm. His mother was a descendant of William Bradford, the Plymouth Governor. They sent Noah to college, but after he graduated he had to teach school for a while. Mr. Scudder pursues him through life with pleasant-ries and criticism turning on his being a schoolmaster. He gives him faint praise as a statesman, though Jefferson mistook his work for Hamilton's. He says "such men as Belknap and Hazard [Mr. Scudder's representative authors of the day] looked with disdain upon him; they felt rather than said that Webster was not one of them." "So, when living in Hartford, Webster was not identified with the circle of Hartford wits." One of Webster's latest works was an edition of the Bible "purified from obsolete,

ungrammatical, and exceptional words and phrases"—as to which Mr. Scudder tells us:

"He is a schoolmaster in this business, squaring Elizabethan English to suit the regularity and uniformity of language which have been the dream of all schoolmasters." "He had not, in such a work as this, the qualifications of a scholar; he had simply the training of a schoolmaster."

"I wonder if one of those scholars [the recent revisers] who signed the non-committal endorsement of Webster's Bible may not, in the midst of his recent labors, have contrasted in his mind the learned company to which he belonged with the schoolmaster who offered a Bible 'purified from the numerous errors.'"

In taking this attitude and tone toward American life and toward the hero of his book, Mr. Scudder does not seem to be influenced by any unhappy temper or by want of knowledge. He has fallen in, shall we say? with the fashion of depreciating the greatness of our history and the qualities of our people. It is the fashion also for biographers to assume the air of specialists pronouncing impartial judgments from lofty heights above their subjects—an ungracious fashion. Their of a great specialist may be assumed, but the substance of his utterance cannot be. Cautious and moderate praise of our great lexicographer from Curtius or Whitney would do him honor; condescending commendation from Mr. Scudder is belittling to him. An old-fashioned enthusiastic account of Webster by a thoroughgoing hero-worshiper would make a more truthful impression of his character and his relations than this volume by Mr. Scudder.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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 Fonte, L. H. A Red-Letter Day, and Other Poems. Boston: A. Williams & Co.
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YOUNGSTOWN, O., May 15, 1882.

No. 2,603.—The above Bank, No. 3, goes into liquidation on account of the expiration of its charter. The First National Bank of Youngstown, Ohio, No. 2,603, with a capital of \$500,000 and surplus of \$150,000, has been organized, and begins business May 16, 1882.

WM. H. BALDWIN, Cashier.

YOUNGSTOWN, O., May 16, 1882.

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